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The Outlook

JULY 16, 1910

LYMAN ABBOTT, Editor-in-Chief. HAMILTON W. MABIE, Associate Editor
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Contributing Editor

PRESIDENT TAFT'S LAND WITHDRAWALS

The President has withdrawn from entry over forty-three million acres of coal lands, water power sites, phosphate lands, and petroleum lands, and also the lands in National forests in Alaska in which workable coal is known to exist. Whether this withdrawal covers other lands in which coal and other mineral deposits *may* exist we do not know. In our judgment no such lands should be thrown open to settlement until the United States Government has had an opportunity to ascertain the facts. We trust that the Geological Survey, on whose recommendations the withdrawals have been made, has included not only lands *known* to contain, but also lands which *may* contain coal and other valuable deposits. The effect of the President's withdrawal, as we understand the facts, is in part to repeat the similar act of his predecessor, President Roosevelt, and of his own Administration. The right of the President to make such withdrawals without specific Act of Congress directing it has been questioned, although, as readers know, we do not regard it as reasonably subject to question. Congress has, however, at the request of President Taft, passed an Act specifically authorizing the withdrawal, and the most skeptical cannot question the legality of the present Executive orders. Of the total acreage now withdrawn by President Taft, nearly half, according to the report in press despatches, is now withdrawn for the first time. These orders will have the effect to prevent any future entry on these lands until they have been thrown open to settlement; and it may be safely assumed that the President will not throw them open to settlement until Congress has an opportunity to formulate and enact a policy for the future treatment of lands of this description. Good reasons could be assigned for giving away agricultural lands in small sections to actual settlers who would build homes and cultivate the soil. No such reasons exist for giving away mineral and forest lands and water power sites to great corporations which will operate them for the benefit of non-resident owners. The action of the President has no effect on the Cunningham claims. It has, that is, no retroactive effect. If the Cunningham claims were legal before, they are still legal; but if they were illegal, this Executive order will make impossible any substitution of new claims.

THE PRIZE FIGHT MOVING PICTURES

The prize fight at Reno, Nevada, on July 4, in which the negro, Johnson, "knocked out" the white man, Jeffries, was followed by race riots in many parts of the country. In several cases the encounters between whites and negroes resulted in deaths, sometimes by lynching, sometimes by plain murder. This sequel to the degrading exhibition at Reno was bad enough. But there seems likelihood that the race conflicts will be renewed and extended if the moving pictures portraying the fight are exhibited throughout the country. Fortunately a movement to prevent the exhibition of the pictures is rapidly spreading and gaining strength. In city after city the authorities have declared that the pictures shall not be shown if they find that they have the power to stop them. In San Francisco, Indianapolis, New Orleans, Little Rock, Baltimore, Cincinnati, the District of Columbia, Kansas City, Milwaukee, Buffalo, St. Louis, Louisville, Savannah, the

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official determination has already been announced. Mayor Gaynor, of New York City, where the most extensive race riots occurred, has declared that if he can find a law applicable to the case he will act promptly. The United Society of Christian Endeavor, with four million members throughout the country, is making a determined fight to prevent the display of the moving pictures in every city and town. Mr. B. F. Keith, the owner of fifteen moving picture theaters in New York, New Jersey, Massachusetts, and other States, has refused, doubtless at considerable financial sacrifice, to permit the pictures to be shown in his houses. With so good a start already made, it only needs an aroused and united public opinion to reduce to a minimum the reproduction, before the throngs of men, women, and children who find a good part of their entertainment in the moving picture shows, of the degrading spectacle at Reno. The Outlook believes in boxing contests. They have real value in developing good qualities in young men, particularly in such parts of the big cities as the East Side of New York. But boxing contests, properly and decently conducted, are a very different thing from a prize fight like that which has just taken place. When two men stand up in the presence of thousands of spectators and hammer one another, without gloves or with gloves that are no real protection, until one or the other is knocked out, it is a brutal exhibition worthy of the days of gladiatorial combats in ancient Rome. Something, however, can be said even for such a contest; it requires on the part of the pugilists physical training beforehand and physical courage in the encounter. But nothing can be said in favor of presenting to the boys and youths of our cities pictures of this contest which stimulate to no training and inspire no courage, and which only incite almost inevitably to contests more or less brutal and sordid by boys and young men. If it is right to prohibit indecent pictures because they stimulate to vice, it ought to be right to prohibit brutal pictures because they stimulate to brutality. If it is right to prohibit prize fights within a State, it ought to be right to prohibit graphic representations of prize fights. And the same public opinion which has put an end to prize fighting in almost every State of the Union ought to put a stop to the exhibition of moving pictures of prize fights.

A REFORMED FOURTH

Much to the surprise of most of the inhabitants of the city, the Fourth of July in New York was endurable. So accustomed have the American people become to the thought that discomfort and danger must accompany the celebration of the Nation's birthday that it is a matter calling for comment when the biggest city of the country has succeeded in making the day really pleasurable. The surgeons in the hospitals were really astonished that the number of accidents did not mount up to the figures recorded on the Fourth of July in other years. It is true that in this city of some four millions four people were killed as possibly a result of the celebration—the same number that lost their lives a year ago. One death, however, was due to an accident in a public exhibition of fireworks, and two of the other deaths were due to pistol shots from unknown sources, which may not have been due to the celebration at all. On the other hand, the day itself in New York City was one of comparative quiet, although it was a day of festivity. A parade from Twenty-sixth Street and Fifth Avenue to the City Hall, and then exercises at City Hall Park, provided a part of the municipal recognition of the day. Athletic sports in the parks and a relay race for forty blocks on Fifth Avenue also contributed to the day's events. An Independence Day Committee headed by Dr. John Finley provided a programme that was carried out in different parts of the city. In the evening a fireworks company displayed fireworks in forty-one parks and squares throughout the city. From the beginning to the end of the day the sick and the injured in the hospitals and in the homes of the city were given the opportunity of resting in peace, and, if not of enjoying the day, of at least blessing a new order of things. What has been accomplished in New York has already been accomplished elsewhere. Last year the city of Washington provided a "safe and sane" mode of celebrating, and this year made it still more elaborate. A

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single day's experience was enough to assure Washingtonians that they would never again have to endure noise and the peril consequent upon allowing dangerous explosives to be set off by the hands of irresponsible children and scarcely more responsible adults. What Washington and Cleveland and New York and other cities have done any city or village may do. All that is necessary is that, first, the proper authority should prohibit the public sale of firecrackers and other explosives, and that, second, some committee of citizens or some local board should provide sensible festivities to be conducted for the sake of the community and by the community. Pageants, athletic games, open air concerts, folk dances, public fireworks, and the like have proved successful. In every place where the modern method of celebrating the Fourth of July has been attempted the verdict is practically unanimous in its favor. Before many years we hope to see the barbarous old-time Fourth confined to those few communities that are ready to acknowledge themselves laggards.

A CASE OF INDUSTRIAL AUTOCRACY

Two committees have recently brought into the open facts concerning conditions of labor which raise very clearly the question whether this country is to be industrially as well as politically free. One of these committees was a Committee on Conciliation in the case of the American Manufacturing Company *versus* its striking employees. This Committee was created by the Central Labor Union of Brooklyn, and made its report to that body. The Committee had to report failure in its attempt to bring the parties in dispute to a conciliatory attitude; but it succeeded in doing the next best thing—in establishing clearly the issue between these parties. The attitude of one party in the dispute, the employing company, was represented by the company's Vice-President and General Manager, Mr. Gratz. He informed the Committee that he had run his business in direct opposition to all labor organizations, and that he wanted no suggestions from the general public. He was ready to lose the half-million and more he had invested in the business rather than budge an inch. He characterized not only all labor organizations, but all sympathizers with labor organizations, such as the chairman of this Committee, who is a Brooklyn clergyman, the Rev. J. Howard Melish, as incendiaries and assassins. He made it clear that no man could remain in his employ who belonged to an organization of labor, and that he regarded action on the part of his employees which led to the stopping of his jute mill as an unpardonable sin. On the other side are the two thousand Poles and Lithuanians who have been working for this concern and supplying the labor for the production of its goods. Though foreign in birth and living, as it were, in a little Poland set down in the midst of Brooklyn, these people count themselves Americans. They are not worldly wise. The Committee says that "they know nothing about organization, have never heard of the ideals of the labor movement, do not understand the first thing about the market price of the commodity they produce." Finding, however, that year by year it is harder to live, they have but one feeling in common—"a desire to get a little more money for the work they do, and to work a little less time." Hearing that other workers have been benefited by striking, they walked out of the mill like children without counting the cost. They are striking, not because they believe they are at a disadvantage with other workers in the same industry, for they know nothing about that, but because they want better wages, better conditions, and shorter hours. The Committee thinks that if the manager would shorten the hours from fifty-seven to fifty hours a week, he would probably get out of the people in the less time more work. The difficulty is that the manager, though charitable, is, to use the words of the Committee, "an embodiment of industrial autocracy." "This business," he told the Committee, "is a one-man affair, and I intend to brook no interference on the part of employees or the public." The Committee comments:

> He is practically the head of a great trust, uses co-operation among small capitalists to its full extent, and then has the audacity to refuse to allow all others under him to co-operate among themselves. He claims the right to meet the competition of the market untram-

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meled, but denies his employees the right to meet competition in the only way open to them, by organization. In this case, therefore, is made plain the issue of the labor movement. Are the workers to have any rights of saying upon what conditions they will sell their labor, or is the employer to dictate to them? Let the workers submit to men of the Mr. Gratz type, and the labor movement has spent itself. The employer must be told, peaceably if possible, but by the strike if necessary, that the day is past when any man can claim divine rights to rule an industry, and can defy both employees and the public.

This is the issue presented by a man whom this Committee likens to "the president of the steel company in Galsworthy's 'Strife.'"

THE STRUGGLE FOR INDUSTRIAL DEMOCRACY

The other committee of the two which we mentioned in the preceding paragraph was a committee of investigation representing the great majority of Protestant churches of the United States. Some time ago, as our readers will remember, the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, comprising over thirty denominations, including the most important, pursuant to a series of strong resolutions regarding the needs of social and industrial life to-day, created the Commission on the Church and Social Service. It is a sub-committee of this Commission that has made this report to which we now refer. It was composed of three men experienced in the study of industrial and social conditions—the Rev. Charles Stelzle, head of the Presbyterian Department of the Church and Labor, himself for many years a wage-earner and still a labor union man in good standing; the Rev. Josiah Strong, head of the Institute of Social Service; and Mr. Paul U. Kellogg, an editor of the "Survey" and Director of that elaborate investigation of conditions in Pittsburgh known as the Pittsburgh Survey. These three men made a brief but astonishingly careful and effective investigation of the situation created by the strike in the Bethlehem Steel Works in Pennsylvania. The strike arose because three machinists dared on behalf of their fellow-laborers to protest against Sunday labor. Starting thus with this one issue, two others arose; so that finally the demands on the part of the employees were for, first, the abolition of unnecessary Sunday work; second, increased wages; and, third, a shorter work day. So fearful were the men of ill consequence to any one of them who might have prominence in presenting their protests that one of the earlier petitions was signed in a circle, so that the employers might not know who was leader. The investigating committee report conditions of labor that are a reproach and a shame, not only to this company, but to the Nation and the State that allow them. Over half the employees were regularly employed on a twelve-hour work day, and most of the other employees were compelled to work overtime to such a degree as to make their work day approach twelve hours. These long hours were aggravated by a system of "speeding up." Over a quarter of the men worked regularly seven days in the week, and the total number working regularly and irregularly seven days in the week approach one-half of all the employees. Although some of this Sunday work is necessary, a great deal of it is unnecessary, and with regard to this even unnecessary work the men have practically no option. Men who refuse to work overtime or on Sunday are discriminated against or discharged. As to wages, they do not compare favorably with those paid by the United States Steel Corporation in Pittsburgh. Indeed, according to the figures presented, they are actually lower. Accidents, of course, are numerous. The only compensation for such accidents is through a benefit association sustained by dues paid by the men. The company duplicates whatever the men pay in. The committee investigated charges of indifference to these conditions on the part of the churches and ministers of Bethlehem. The committee did not find that the churches as such took action in the strike, but the ministers did take action through a Ministerial Association. The committee also disposes of other charges. It calls attention, however, to the fact that the attitude of the Ministerial Association was such as naturally to exasperate the wage-earners. It rebuked the strikers "for using any means, whether fair or foul, to embarrass and cripple the steel company;" but it did not censure the company for requiring of its men unnecessary work on Sundays.

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As this Ministerial Association, as represented by its committee, regarded the righting of wrong as possible only by the company and not by the men, it must, of course, hold the company responsible for such wrong, and yet it has done nothing to bring this truth home to the officials of the company. The Association's committee asked the workingmen how, by destroying his property, they could expect to persuade their employer to be "generous and magnanimous"? Altogether apart from the futility of supposing that workingmen are asking for generosity and magnanimity, rather than demanding justice and a square deal, it is noteworthy that no corresponding question is put to the employer. The ministers of Bethlehem have evidently looked at the question from the capitalist's point of view. The investigating committee makes certain recommendations, and these recommendations have been adopted by the Commission. These are that the churches work for six days' legislation, that they start a movement to place in the hands of some Governmental body the authority to determine when industrial operations must necessarily be performed on Sunday, that the churches stand out against the tendency to lower standards, and particularly demand that the Federal Government include proper labor conditions in its specifications for its constructive work, that the churches set aside days for the discussion of industrial conditions, that ministers visit public and private works and learn of conditions at first hand, that some properly constituted body adequately study the question of a living wage, that Federal and State labor bureaus report upon continuous industries, and that the right of employees to organize be recognized. The committee reaffirms the principles, which have already been enunciated by the Commission on the Church and Social Service, of reduction in hours of labor, of release of employment one day in the seven, and of the highest wage in each industry that that industry can afford. The committee also makes certain recommendations to the Ministerial Association of Bethlehem. Such reports as these indicate not only that the issue between autocracy and democracy in industry is becoming gradually clearer, but that in the settling of that issue the Church is beginning to assume leadership.

THE WHITE SLAVE TRAFFIC

The presentment of the Grand Jury respecting the white slave trade in the city of New York indicates a very revolting condition, though in one not very important respect not quite so revolting as has been reported. "We have found," says the Grand Jury, "no evidence of the existence in the County of New York of any organization or organizations, incorporated or otherwise, engaged as such in the traffic in women for immoral purposes, nor have we found evidence of an organized traffic in women for immoral purposes." The significance of this declaration all lies in the word "organized." But the Grand Jury finds "that a trafficking in women does exist, and is carried on by individuals acting for their own individual benefit, and that these persons are known to each other and are more or less informally associated." Whether they carry on this traffic in formal or informal associations, whether they share the profit of the traffic, or each individual takes the profit of his own individual transaction, is a matter of very little consequence to the community. They co-operate, though they may not combine. The business is carried on on such a scale that the cafés and so-called club-houses which serve as centers for trade are known as "markets," and the men and women who are carrying it on are known as "dealers" and "operators." The presentment further states that the New York Independent Benevolent Association, organized in 1894 and incorporated in 1896, with an average membership of about one hundred scattered in many cities throughout the United States, avowedly to assist its members in case of illness, while not carrying on the traffic in women as an Association, has given aid and support to certain of its members when arrested for participating in this traffic. Despite the difficulty of conducting an investigation, owing to the publicity given through the press to the fact that such an investigation was being made, two "dealers" have been arrested, one of whom pleaded guilty, the other of whom was convicted, and the trial of these two

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persons gave evidence of the extensiveness of this unspeakably infamous trade. The Grand Jury pointed out as aids to the traffic certain of the moving picture shows and certain of the so-called massage and manicure parlors, as well as the so-called Raines Law hotels, and it recommends "that a commission be appointed by the Mayor to make a careful study of the laws relating to, and the methods of dealing with, the social evil in the leading cities of this country and of Europe, with a view to devising the most effective means of minimizing the evil in this city." We hope that the Mayor will appoint such a commission, that it will be furnished with the necessary means to make its investigation thorough, and that it will be composed of men all of whom believe, not in merely lessening vice, nor in merely punishing vice, nor in merely reforming vicious individuals, but in treating a great social plague as sanitary authorities are learning to treat a great physical plague, as an epidemic to be studied, understood, and eventually cured.

THE NEW SUBWAY PROPOSAL

Mr. Shonts, the President of the Interborough Rapid Transit Company of New York City, has submitted a plan for the construction, equipment, and operation of new subway lines, in connection with the present Subway now operated by the Interborough. The estimated cost is $70,000,000; the subways to be built, as the present subways were, on the city's credit; and after the payment of interest and one per cent for a sinking fund and other charges, the net profits to be equally divided between the city and the company. The routes proposed are as follows:

The construction of a four-track line from Times Square through Seventh Avenue and West Broadway to Liberty Street, with a two-track extension to the Battery and a two-track branch from the intersection of Liberty Street and West Broadway under Liberty Street and the East River to Pineapple Street in Brooklyn; from Pineapple Street in Brooklyn to a junction with the existing Brooklyn Subway on Fulton Street, and a four-track extension from the terminus of the Brooklyn Subway at Atlantic and Flatbush Avenues, under the latter thoroughfare and Eastern Parkway as far as Nostrand Avenue. An East Side four-track line from about Thirty-fifth Street under Park Avenue and private property to Lexington Avenue, through Lexington Avenue across the Harlem River to some point below East 149th Street. A two-track extension from that point connecting with the existing West Farms branch of the Subway. Another two-track extension running up Mott Avenue and 153d Street to River Avenue, with an elevated two-track-line structure through that thoroughfare and Jerome Avenue as far as 194th Street.

The plan should have been submitted to the Public Service Commission. It was submitted to the Mayor, who at once turned it over to the Chairman of that Commission with the remark that "the credit of getting the matter under way at last, so that the whole matter comes up for negotiation and consideration, is due to the continuous endeavor of you and your associates since your Board was organized."

MERITS AND DEMERITS

The proposed route appears to be a plausible one; the business aspects of the proposition we do not at present discuss. There are, however, two serious objections to the plan, which, if they are insisted upon, we should regard as fatal. The proposal involves the demand of a right by the Interborough to install a third track on part of its elevated system. No immediate advantage to the city can justify this policy. The elevated railways should eventually disappear altogether, or be built, as in Berlin, not on the public highway. The present system is as archaic and as ill-fitted to the modern city as would be the re-establishment of the lumbering omnibuses on Broadway. The other objection is to the proposal, which the Mayor rightly characterizes as not tolerable, that, "if the gross revenue should at any time be insufficient to meet the gross expenses, the deficit should be made good by the city." It would be a very simple matter for the Interborough so to adjust the operating expenses, including large salaries to its officials, that there should be no profit and might easily be a deficit. The history of the Boston and Albany Railway, which (if we recall its history correctly) after paying ten per cent dividend was to pay all subsequent profits to the State, but which never had any profits to pay, quite justifies the

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Mayor's conclusion. Despite these objections, the Interborough's proposal certainly indicates a great advance from the time when the corporation claimed the right to own the Subway and take all the profits.

CHIEF JUSTICE MELVILLE WESTON FULLER

Melville Weston Fuller, the Chief Justice of the United States, died last week suddenly, in the seventy-eighth year of his age, at his summer residence at Sorrento, Maine. He was in fact a Maine man. He was born there, graduated at Bowdoin College, and commenced his practice in that State. Moving to Chicago at the age of twenty-three, he attained in the West legal eminence in a varied practice extending over a period of thirty-three years. He was appointed Chief Justice by President Cleveland in 1888, succeeding Chief Justice Waite, and, despite serious opposition in the Senate based on his well-known political views, was, after some delay, confirmed in office. He was a strict constructionist of the Constitution and an old-time individualist. Living in an epoch of great and increasing organization, when, as The Outlook believes, increasing organic powers must be given both to the State and to the Nation in order to protect the rights of the individual from aggressions from commercial organizations, he adhered with unflinching, though always courteously expressed, tenacity to those views of governmental authority which, it appears to The Outlook, the Nation has outgrown. Two notable cases may serve to illustrate his point of view: the cases In re Neagle, and Field vs. Clark. Neagle, a deputy marshal, had been directed by the Attorney-General of the United States to guard the person of Mr. Justice Field, whose life was thought to be in danger. In the discharge of this duty he shot and killed a man named Terry in the act of making an assault and battery on the Judge. He was arrested by the sheriff of the State, but discharged from arrest by the Circuit Court of the United States, and to that discharge the sheriff objected. The Supreme Court held that the clause of the Constitution directing the President to take care that the laws be thoroughly executed gave to him, and therefore to his subordinates, power to do whatever was necessary for the protection of a justice of one of the Courts of the United States. From this decision Mr. Justice Lamar, a Mississippi lawyer, and Chief Justice Fuller, a Maine lawyer, dissented, on the ground that there were no implied powers granted by the Constitution to the Executive, and no right to the President or his subordinates to protect the person of the justices of the Federal Courts except by the enforcement of some express Act of Congress. In Field vs. Clark the question raised was as to the Constitutional authority of Congress to confer on the President certain special powers. The McKinley Tariff Law of 1890 provided that certain reciprocal trade advantages should be given to any nation granting analogous advantages to the United States, and left the President to decide when the conditions were not fulfilled and the grant should not be made. The Mississippi Democrat and the Maine Democrat agreed that this was a legislative act which Congress could not delegate to the President, but the majority of the Supreme Court held the other opinion. It is perhaps partly due to the fact that the Chief Justice on Constitutional questions was not in accord with the growing spirit of the age, nor, in general, with the majority of the Court over which he presided, that he was unable to give to it the same sort of leadership, and to secure from it the same sort of co-operative action, as did Chief Justice Marshall. Mr. Fuller was small in size, and yet, by reason of his personality—manifested in his striking figure, the fineness of his hair, the agility of his step, the alertness of his movement, the clearness and combined vigor and gentleness of his eye, the moderation of his manner, and his evenly modulated, musical, low, and clear voice—was a forceful, if not commanding, presence. He was a gentleman of the old school, a lover of the classics, the possessor of a fine literary style, a scholar of culture, with a notably winning personality, and was dominated by strong convictions and gentle but inflexible courage in maintaining them. The lawyers gave to him the credit of business skill in so managing the affairs of the Court that its work was furthered

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with as much expedition as possible, an important service which he rendered with a tact and consideration which m de him perhaps the most popular, though not the strongest or most famous Chief Justice who has ever occupied that high position.

TWO SHAKESPEAREAN SCHOLARS

Shakespeare students will mourn the death of Frederick James Furnivall and William James Rolfe. Both men died full of years and honors. Dr. Furnivall was born in 1825; Dr. Rolfe, in 1827. The first was an Englishman; the second, an American. Dr. Furnivall was a typical John Bull—clean-cut, well set-up, simple, sincere, straightforward, with the red-blooded temperament, which we like to associate with every Englishman, showing itself spontaneously in physical, mental, and moral life. In physical prowess Dr. Furnivall early showed himself a man to be reckoned with. Not only did he become famous as an oarsman, he built the first narrow sculling boats in England. He introduced the first sculling four and sculling eight races, and was president of a number of rowing clubs. His interest in boating was maintained throughout his long life; he celebrated his eighty-fourth birthday by rowing over the Henley course. A barrister by profession, he found, as have many other lawyers, that literature had stronger claims upon him than had the law. His special department of literature was early English. He became the founder of the Early English Text Society, and the Chaucer, the Ballad, the New Shakespeare, and the Wyclif Societies. These and other movements for republication of the manuscripts and monuments of early English literature were due to Dr. Furnivall's inspiration. Among his publications were the Introductions to the Royal, the Leopold, and the Century Shakespeares, and volumes in the Roxburghe Club and Rolls Series; he also edited the Old Spelling Shakespeare and wrote a great deal for the publications of the philological and literary societies with which he was associated. For many years he was also joint editor, and later sole editor, of the New English Dictionary. Even more interesting than his athletic and literary achievements, however, was Dr. Furnivall's prominence in the Christian Socialist and Co-operative Movement in the days when Frederick Denison Maurice and Thomas Hughes gave to that appellation a peculiar distinction. If Dr. Furnivall was known as an editor of texts, Dr. Rolfe was known rather as a popularizer of Shakespeare. Certainly many have found an appreciation of the English classics, and of Shakespeare in particular, because of the Rolfe propaganda. Dr. Rolfe was an Amherst graduate. He began life as a teacher in the high schools of Cambridge and other eastern Massachusetts towns. His teaching showed him the neglect in one department—that of the study of English literature. Of course Dr. Rolfe found the stronghold of English literature in Shakespeare. Forty years ago he brought out an edition of Craik's "The English of Shakespeare," which has often been reprinted. Later he made a school edition of Shakespeare's "The Merchant of Venice," and followed it with editions of the other plays, finally completing the series in forty volumes. Among his other Shakespeare publications were "Shakespeare the Boy," "A Life of Shakespeare," an edition of "Lamb's Tales from Shakespeare." Evidences of Dr. Rolfe's attention to the later period of English literature are his editions of Milton, Goldsmith, Gray, Scott, Wordsworth, Macaulay, Tennyson, and the Brownings. As a stylist Dr. Rolfe was himself notable. Master of six or seven languages, and with a wonderfully large vocabulary at his command, he always used the simplest possible English.

PRESIDENT DIAZ

Porfirio Diaz, eighty years old, has been elected President of Mexico for the eighth time. Since 1884 he has continuously occupied that office. To show what a real political machine can do, it is stated that of eight hundred Presidential electors chosen, only four belonged to the opposition. This, together with apparently arbitrary arrests and imprisonments, signifies that Mexico is still far from realizing democratic and representative government. Yet, while votes for President Diaz may have been unduly swelled, there is little reason to suppose that he is not

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the deliberate choice of most of the Mexican people. As a rule, Mexicans have little notion of the responsibilities and duties of citizenship. Despite the culture of some, the mass of the people are both ignorant and illiterate, and have had to depend upon a strong hand. They were long accustomed to various dictatorships. Though General Diaz may now have developed into something other than a dictator, most Mexicans realize that the Governmental party, as he represents it, is the party to be upheld, if for no other reason than that the opposition parties seem essentially revolutionary. But when General Reyes, one of the principal army chiefs and a Presidential aspirant, declared that Señor Corral, the present Vice-President, had shown himself too pro-American to be loyal to the Mexican Republic, and that American capital and labor should be excluded from a "Mexico for the Mexicans," such a narrowly interpreted nationalism seemed revolutionary when compared with General Diaz's broader policy which has built up Mexico. Though the Diaz political methods have met and may still meet with disapprobation, though the country is still backward in popular government, President Diaz, to the gratification of Mexicans and foreigners alike, has certainly done wonders for Mexico materially, and thus retains his principal hold. Foreign capital is invested there because of the conviction, first, that it is fairly safe; second, that it commands a better return than in most countries; and, third, that, by inducing liberal legislation, President Diaz has efficiently encouraged the development of Mexican natural resources to the benefit of all. Naturally, the most of the foreign capital invested in Mexico comes from this country. It is significant of this confidence that during the last two decades American sales to Mexico and Mexican sales to this country have each trebled. Thousands of Americans are engaged in Mexican mining, railway-building, and other enterprises. They would not be, had General Diaz not brought law and order in Mexico out of chaos and induced international confidence wherever were discredit and mistrust. The social condition of the Mexican people, however, provides problems which President Diaz has not attacked with the skill he has used in solving problems of material development. We hope that his new Presidential term may be distinguished by greater attention to Mexico's social needs and aspirations.

THE TARIFF BOARD

I read on page 272 of your issue of June 11 that "he [President Taft] commends the Tariff Bill for the same reasons which led The Outlook to commend it, . . . because it provides for a tariff commission to secure evidence on which to base tariff reform in the future." With the duties of the new Commission clearly defined and *no provision made* for ascertaining the difference in cost of production here and abroad, upon which principle is based the entire excuse for a tariff, I would be interested to have The Outlook point out to me what practical use the so-called Tariff Commission can be.

I. S. C.

We think our correspondent is mistaken as to the facts. The object of the appropriation of $250,000, to be expended by the Tariff Commission, is defined to be to enable the President to secure information to assist him in the despatch of the duties imposed upon him by the Tariff Act, and specifically "includes such investigation of the cost of commodities, covering cost of material, fabrication, and every other element of such cost of production as are authorized by the Act, and including the employment of such persons as may be required for such purposes." Already two members of the Tariff Board, Messrs. Emery and Reynolds, are in Europe engaged in gathering such information. We may add that, by a provision in the General Deficiency Bill, the information gathered by the Immigration Commission relative to the cost of production in all our industries here will, on December 1 next, be at the service of this Tariff Board. We think that we have reason to assure our correspondent, and others like-minded with himself, that this Tariff Commission is not a powerless and useless body, but has both legislative and financial power to make an independent investigation of the relative cost of production both abroad and at home, for the purpose of enabling Congress to carry out, if it chooses to do so, the principle involved in the protective policy as defined by the Republican platform.

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CONSERVING THE FAMILY

When the head of a family is sent to the workhouse for violating a municipal ordinance, his punishment usually falls heaviest on the family which is deprived of his support. During his period of imprisonment the earnings of the wife must usually be supplemented by private charity. In Kansas City, Missouri, the Board of Public Welfare has developed a plan, based on the experience of Washington and some other cities, to put the burden of the support of the family in such cases on the husband. This Board is constituted by ordinance to control the city's penal institutions. It is represented at all proceedings before the municipal courts, and it has authority to parole prisoners and to revoke paroles. Under the system devised by the Board, when the head of a family is sent to the workhouse a careful record is kept of his output, and the amount produced in excess of fifty cents a day goes to his family. If this is insufficient, the Board supplements it from the funds in its charge. When circumstances warrant it, the man is paroled, and, if possible, is sent back to his family under orders to report weekly to the Board and to refrain from drinking. Each case is treated, so far as possible, on its merits. In one instance, for example, the man was a chronic wife-deserter. He had repeatedly abandoned his family. He was paroled after signing a pledge to support his family, to report every Saturday to the secretary of the Board, to reimburse private charities for the amount they had spent in maintaining his family during his absence, and to deposit three hundred dollars with the Board as security against deserting his family. This man has been living at home for nearly a year since he was paroled, has been earning eighteen dollars a week, and has been getting on well. In numerous instances, however, the Board finds it impossible to provide for the man's living at home. There may be insuperable incompatibility of temper, or the man may prove incurably brutal. In such cases he is released on parole on condition of his paying a certain amount to the Board every week for the support of his family. If a paroled man gets to drinking or fails to make his payments, his parole is revoked. The experience of the Board has been that a good percentage of the men, after contributing for their families' support for a few weeks, find that they can live at home.

THE RECENT PRIZE FIGHT

I have always been fond of boxing, and have always believed in it as a vigorous, manly pastime, one of those pastimes which have a distinct moral and physical value, because they encourage such essential virtues as courage, hardihood, endurance, and self-control. Until within a few years, I used to box a good deal myself, and when I was young several times took part in contests of a public or semi-public nature—generally, I am bound to say, with ill success. I think boxing is a sport which should be encouraged among boys and young men generally. I have been glad to help it so far as I could in the army and navy, where, I believe, it has been an excellent thing for the enlisted men. When I was Police Commissioner, I was much struck by a statement made to me by Jacob Riis to the effect that the establishment of boxing clubs in many of the poorer districts had resulted in good, in rather unexpected ways; that is, it had not only given the vigorous young fellows who otherwise would join "gangs" a legitimate outlet for their activities, but had also markedly reduced the number of affrays in which the knife was used. The spirit produced by the boxing had told against knife-fighting, and distinctly discouraged unfair play.

Therefore, from every standpoint, I believe in the encouragement of boxing as a sport. Moreover, boxing as a profession has its good side also. Among the men whose friendship and regard I have really valued I could name a number of professional boxers, including several ring champions. The men to whom I refer I found square, decent men, who showed themselves good citizens when their good citizenship was tested. I approved of the movement which in this State, at the time that I was Police Commissioner, resulted in the enactment of a law permitting contests between professional boxers, under conditions which were meant to safeguard the sport against brutality and

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the other evils which have everywhere resulted sooner or later in the suppression of the prize-ring. I saw several of these public boxing contests, in which the intent of the law was carried out in good faith.

Nevertheless, even under this law, abuses crept in, and, finally, one or two fights occurred where the surrounding circumstances were so scandalous that when I was Governor I was obliged to advocate, and finally to secure, the repeal of the law under which the contests took place, feeling convinced, together with the great majority of the citizens of the State, that under it almost all that made prize fighting objectionable and demoralizing had gradually been revived.

Now this was my experience, the experience of a man who, so far from being prejudiced against boxing, was and is a warm advocate of it, and who, at the outset, had not the slightest prejudice against professional boxing—that is, boxing for purses of money—and who has numbered among his friends many men who were professionals and had fought for money prizes. I am sure that what has happened in New York will happen in the Nation at large, and that prize fighting will be, as it ought to be, stopped in every State of the Union. Since it was stopped in New York the conditions surrounding the ring have grown worse, and not better. The money prizes fought for are enormous, and are a potent source of demoralization in themselves, while they are often so arranged as either to be a premium on crookedness or else to reward nearly as amply the man who fails as the man who succeeds. The betting and gambling upon the result are thoroughly unhealthy, and the moving-picture part of the proceedings has introduced a new method of money-getting and of demoralization. In addition, the last contest provoked a very unfortunate display of race antagonism. I sincerely trust that public sentiment will be so aroused, and will make itself felt so effectively, as to guarantee that this is the last prize fight to take place in the United States; and it would be an admirable thing if some method could be devised to stop the exhibition of the moving pictures taken thereof.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

THE ARMY AND IRRIGATION

When it was announced last week that President Taft had appointed a board of army engineers to advise him with regard to reclamation projects, and that the Secretary of the Interior had appointed an army engineer as a consulting engineer on such projects, probably few Americans knew why the appointments had been made, or what end they were intended to serve. In order to understand this it is necessary to recount briefly the task of reclamation that the Government has undertaken and the problems involved.

In making productive and habitable desert lands in the West the United States Government is engaged in an enormous business undertaking. This is not true of most of the work that the Government is doing. In building forts, in dredging harbors, in constructing public buildings, in surveying the land, in providing naval vessels, it is spending money with no thought of return to its own treasury; but in irrigating arid lands it is not merely spending money but is obliged to plan for an income. In this respect it is like a private corporation. When a private corporation spends money, it does so only as its officers are persuaded that the expenditure will be justified by an adequate return on the investment. Likewise, when the Government spends money on a reclamation project (as an engineering undertaking for the purposes of irrigation is called), it does so only as the officials in charge are persuaded that there is to be a return to the Government for the expenditure. The difference between the private corporation and the Government in this respect is that the corporation is seeking profits for its owners, while the Government is seeking simply recovery of its money in order that it may devote it to other projects again in the same way for the public interest. The plan is briefly this: The Government provides the men and the money for building a project. When the project is completed, the users pay to the Government money for the construction. This money does not go into the general funds of the Government, but is put back into the Reclamation Fund for use on some other project which,

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when it is finished, sends the money back to the fund for further use in the same way. So the Reclamation Fund is like the contents of the widow's cruse—however much is poured out, it is always renewed.

Thus the director and officials of the Reclamation Service have two sets of problems: they have those of a special kind of hydraulic engineering, and they have those of business administration with a view to income. To decide on the value of any particular project demands, therefore, a special experience in respect, first, of engineering as applied to irrigation, and, second, in respect of business administration.

Heretofore the duty of dealing with these problems has devolved upon the Reclamation Service, which is a bureau in the Department of the Interior. Under this bureau over twenty projects have been begun and a large proportion brought to completion or practical completion. Some idea of the immensity of these projects can be gathered from the cost of them. In more than one case this cost amounts to eight million dollars and more. What this expenditure means, however, may be surmised from the statement of the Director, Mr. F. H. Newell, made in a hearing before a committee of Congress that "a single annual harvest" from land comprised in one of them "will more than equal the preliminary computed cost of construction of the whole project." How much a project may cost to construct depends on the amount of the land irrigated. A small amount of land can, of course, be irrigated at a comparatively small total cost. On the other hand, a larger acreage, though irrigated at a greater total cost, may conceivably be irrigated at a lower cost per acre. In one sense a project is completed when it is profitably used for irrigating any land. In another sense it is completed only when it is used for irrigating all the land to which the available water can be brought.

Now, in order to "complete" the projects already undertaken, but not for the construction of any "new" project, Congress at the last session authorized a special issue of bonds to the amount of twenty million dollars. At the same time Congress created a special Board of Engineers, to be selected by the President from the Engineering Corps of the army, and required that none of the money provided by this bond issue could be used for the completion of a project until that project had been examined by this special Board of Army Engineers and had been approved by the President. In other words, upon a number of army engineers was laid the duty of dealing with the specialized hydraulic engineering problems and the specialized business problems of reclamation.

As regards the distinctive engineering problems of these projects, army engineers are not specialists. They have no such knowledge of hydraulic engineering as applied to irrigation as has been acquired by many civilian engineers, and particularly by the engineers of the Reclamation Service. The Outlook in a recent issue pointed out that in this respect their advice cannot be expected to have special value. In course of time, it is true, they might probably acquire this knowledge if it would be of advantage. At this stage in the progress of these so-called "uncompleted" projects, however, such knowledge on the part of an advisory board can hardly be of service. Most of these projects are, so far as engineering problems are concerned, virtually completed. The plans are all worked out and the reservoirs and aqueducts and ditches are in use or nearly ready for use. What remains is not a problem in engineering, but a problem in business, or, more broadly, a problem of dealing with men. The problem is not how to spend money in construction, but how to administer what has been constructed so as to secure the justifiable and necessary revenue. In this particular kind of problem the army engineer is not at all an expert. He has been trained to spend money in the production of solid, substantial, enduring structures, and splendidly has he responded to his training. For thorough work in producing results regardless of expense the army engineer has to his credit a fine record. But in managing so as to secure a revenue from engineering structures the army engineer has had absolutely no training. In fact, he has been trained away from it. Moreover, the army engineer is not fitted for con-

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ceiving and planning such great public policies as are involved in such a system as that of Reclamation. He is an exceptionally able superintendent of particular pieces of work. It is the statesman and the civilian engineer that conceives and plans a great public task like that of the construction of the Panama Canal; it is the army engineer who, when the task is planned and begun, can be then placed in charge of it, and see that it is carried out efficiently and honestly. Now the task of the Reclamation Service belongs distinctly to the category of public policy involving an income-producing administration rather than to the category of honest and efficient expenditure of money.

Since, therefore, the army engineers, even if they were experts, can have little chance of giving advice on hydraulic engineering regarding the "completion" of practically completed projects, and since they can have little to offer in the way of advising experienced men how to administer an income-producing utility, we hope that the President will receive their advice, file it, and then act in accordance with the plans and policies of Mr. Newell, the very able Director of the Reclamation Service.

THE GOLDEN RULE ON TRIAL

There are many who think, though there are few frank enough to say, that the Ten Commandments and the Golden Rule are an "iridescent dream:" beautiful ideals, but not practicable of application in modern commercial life; to be honored as a goal which future generations may reach, but not to be accepted as a principle of life by which the present generation can be guided. Arthur H. Clough's "Latest Decalogue" is a satire, but not a caricature:

"Thou shalt have one God only; who
Would be at the expense of two?
No graven images may be
Worshiped, except the currency:
Swear not at all; for, for thy curse
Thine enemy is none the worse:
At church on Sunday to attend
Will serve to keep the world thy friend:
Honor thy parents; that is, all
From whom advancement may befall:
Thou shalt not kill; but need'st not strive
Officiously to keep alive:
Do not adultery commit;
Advantage rarely comes of it:
Thou shalt not steal; an empty feat,
When it's so lucrative to cheat:
Bear not false witness; let the lie
Have time on its own wings to fly:
Thou shalt not covet, but tradition
Approves all forms of competition."

The only effective answer to the question whether the Ten Commandments and the Golden Rule are a practicable guide in life is experiment. Try them and see. Mr. William Henry Baldwin, Jr., did try them. John Graham Brooks's volume [1] is rather a character study than the story of a life. Few details are given, but enough to make very clear the answer of that life to the question, Is Christianity practicable? That the life was successful the following paragraphic outline sufficiently demonstrates:

In February, 1886, he went to Omaha, to the Auditor's office of the Union Pacific Railroad, to familiarize himself with railroad accounting. From May to August of the same year, he was in Mr. Adams's office at Boston. From August to December, again in Omaha. From December 1 to May 1, 1887, in the General Traffic Department, studying the handling of freight and making of rates. May, 1887, to Butte, Montana, as Division Freight Agent of the Union Pacific. June 1, 1888, to February, 1889, Assistant Freight Agent in Omaha. February, 1889, to September, 1889, Manager of the Leavenworth Division. September, 1889, to August, 1890, General Manager of the Montana Union R. R. August, 1890, to June, 1891, Assistant Vice-President, Omaha. June, 1891, to July, 1894, General Manager of the Flint and Père Marquette R. R., Saginaw, Mich. July, 1894, to October, 1896, Southern R. R., Washington, D. C. October, 1896, until his death in 1905, President of the Long Island R. R.

William Henry Baldwin, Jr., started in life with two advantages: a fine inheritance and a fair opportunity. He inherited from father and mother noble ideals of life and courage to devote himself to them. His father was that William Henry Baldwin who at forty-two years of age gave up commercial business to take up the work of the Boston Young Men's Christian Union, in which he became a pioneer of that movement that subsequently extended into the Young Men's Christian Associations, and made them the great exponent of a practical and social

[1] "An American Citizen: The Life of William Henry Baldwin, Jr.," by John Graham Brooks. Houghton Mifflin Company.

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Christianity. The son's opportunity was simply a chance "to see what he can do," a chance that comes, in some form or other, to most of us, only we are often too dull of vision to see it. Recommended by President Eliot, of Harvard University, to Charles Francis Adams, the President of the Union Pacific, the young graduate was offered a post in the Auditor's office, at Omaha. "'Here's your chance,' it was said to him; 'make what you can of it.'" His chance was a set of muddled figures interpreted by his superior in the suggestion that "no one but the Almighty can understand them," which "the young man thought was a reflection upon the Deity, because it would discredit the highest wisdom to understand anything so material." He put his university mathematical training at work, and presently got order out of chaos. His superiors later gave three reasons why the young man so early attracted attention: "his enthusiasm, his entire thoroughness, and his faculty of application." But from the start he carried into his business something more—a spirit of humanity. "His smile wins the office boy to make a better record of his own. Men disgruntled by neglect, real or fancied, work better in his department. 'Where Baldwin is there is less friction and fault-finding.'"

Smiles and kind words cost no sacrifice and involve no battle. But the spirit of humanity, if it is genuine, does cost sacrifice, does involve battle. And presently to this graduate just out of college came experiences that tested his humanity and gave opportunity to demonstrate, to himself as well as to others, how real and deep and strong it was. Brought up among the Brahmins of Boston, in his new vocation in the Rockies "he falls in with men of uncouth ways, with some, indeed, so rough with eccentricity as to stagger him a little." But Harvard culture had put no limitations on his spirit of humanity, and to his own surprise he took to his new acquaintances, and they to him. He wrote to his mother, "It is astonishing how many of them you meet and how you come to like them." His humanity did not stop with liking; it inspired to service. He found that the only meeting-place the men had was the saloon, which was also a gambling-shop. He set to work to give them a chance for something better; organized libraries, and was "astonished to find what an intelligent lot of men they are. Some of the engineers had educated themselves far better than half the Harvard graduates have been educated."

I had a half-dozen section hands carry the books over to our building from the station. One of them was a bleary, bloodshot-eyed old chap, who looked as if he had been drunk all his life, and had slept alternately in the gutter and on the floor of some saloon. When I opened the boxes and took out the books, his eyes glistened with a new light. He seemed to know Shakespeare by heart! Burns, Thackeray, Walter Scott, Byron, and a dozen others were criticised by him. "Bobby Burns," or "dear old Bobby," as he called him, was highly praised, and he repeated verse after verse in the Scotch dialect. I was astonished, to say the least.

Not till he had thus done for the men all that he could by giving them opportunity for something better did he open direct war on the saloon. "'If the men are ordered not to drink,' he said, 'they will merely indulge in a little extra profanity at our expense.' He was frank to say that he himself would not like such an order from any man." But when he had provided a substitute, he forbade drinking to the men while on duty; and public opinion among the men supported the order.

This cost of a little money, a good deal of extra unpaid work, and infinite patience was gladly paid. But the Ten Commandments and the Golden Rule require more than this: they require of every seller that he shall consider the interests of his customer, of every railway manager that he shall consider the interests of the public. That is getting to be a commonplace of morality in 1910, but it was scouted as impracticable idealism when Mr. Baldwin, in a subordinate position as railway manager, said, "I want business that shall benefit consumers, shippers, and the road together." And this was something different from the doctrine that he was to benefit the road first and the public when he could. On the contrary, "the *first* obligation of public corporations," he said, "is loyalty and fidelity to their public trusts;" and the italics, says Mr. Brooks, are his own. We add that he put the

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emphasis in his actions where he put it in his words. He not only held that a railway could be made to profit both the public and the owners, he habitually held that "the private dividends should not be first, but strictly subordinate to the common welfare." He acted on this aphorism, applied it when he took charge of the almost bankrupt Flint and Père Marquette Railroad, put it on its feet, and saved it from the receivership to which most of the smaller railways in Michigan were brought in 1894–96. In this, as in all his relations with his fellow-men, he was governed by asking himself the question, "What should I think and do if I were actually in that man's place?" That is simply the Golden Rule in another form.

This Golden Rule made him from almost the very beginning of his career an advocate of Government regulation and an opponent of stock-watering in all its forms. As a member of the public this would be what he would demand, and therefore as a railway manager he demanded it. We doubt whether any railway official stated this principle earlier than Mr. Baldwin, and we are quite sure that no one has stated it more clearly than he did in the following words:

> "The exact fair cost should be capitalized, and after capital has its proper return and business efficiency maintained, the surplus is to go where it belongs, *to the public*." And in that public he includes, of course, the wage-earners. Again and again, he had seen rewatered securities made the excuse for not advancing or for reducing wages. He thought this as unjust as, in the long run, it was unintelligent.

The same principle, "What should I think and do if I were actually in that man's place?" made him the advocate and friend of the trade union. His was no grudging concession of a right to workingmen; it was a sincere and earnest advocacy of trade organization. "I need," he said, "as an employer, an organization among my employees, because they know their needs better than I can know them, and they are therefore the safeguard upon which I must depend in order to prevent me from doing them an injustice." We should like to see that sentence printed on a card and hung up in his office by every employer of organized labor: "I need the labor union to prevent me from doing my employees an injustice." If that spirit inspired every capitalistic organization, the labor union would become, by a natural development, the great peace-maker. And in this principle Mr. Baldwin believed, though it might, and probably would, cost something to him and to the class which he represented. When the capitalist objected to the trade union that it "checked and hindered the development of business prosperity," his answer was prompt: "Even if that is true, it is better to get rich at a somewhat slower pace than to make millions of wage-earners lose faith in your justice and fairness."

To write these simple principles here in an editorial is easy; to write them in a great organization where they have never been applied before, and where officials above and workingmen below are alike skeptical, is a more difficult task; and this is what Mr. Baldwin did. The Southern Railway had been in a receiver's hands, security holders had been asked to accept a reduction, wages had been cut, and finally a reorganization effected. Thereupon Mr. Baldwin was appointed practical manager. Naturally the men expected the old scale of wages to be restored, and at once presented their claim. He asked for time to acquaint himself with the conditions, studied them carefully, prepared a pamphlet giving the results of his studies: "earnings, prices, hours, and wages were given in such form that every man could test the truth of each statement." This pamphlet was accompanied with the statement that a large reduction in the salaries of the general officers, varying from ten per cent to twenty-five per cent, had been made, but none in the wages of the men, and the pamphlet closed "with the hope that you will recognize the force and fairness of the reasons given for the company's present inability to make the increases in the rates of pay which you ask." And they did. He acted on the belief that if you are trustworthy you will be trusted; and if you are not trustworthy you ought not to be trusted.

We do not here attempt any account of the philanthropic labors of Mr. Baldwin in dealing with the race problem in the South, the tenement-house problem in New York City, and the soldiers' camp problem at Montauk Point. His self-

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dedication to civic ideals is illustrated by the fact that when civic duty brought him into collision with Tammany he tendered his resignation as railway President to Mr. Cassatt, who refused to accept it. But our object here is not to tell the story of Mr. Baldwin's life, nor even to give a just estimate of his character; it is simply to point out to our readers that one such life is sufficient to demonstrate that the Ten Commandments and the Golden Rule are not an "iridescent dream," that they constitute a practical working rule of conduct for commercial life in this twentieth century.

It is true that Mr. Baldwin might have made more money if he had not made the Golden Rule the rule of his life. He was at one time given the opportunity to take advantage of certain secret plans for a railway extension and buy certain properties which were sure to rise in consequence of the extension; he refused. "'I could have made a pot of money out of that,' he said, 'but I should have sold too much of myself.'" It is also true that mere obedience to the Ten Commandments and the Golden Rule would not have given Mr. Baldwin his success. Ability was necessary; and he had great ability. Men of capacity to work only under orders cannot win leadership merely by being moral. There must be many privates and few captains of industry. And captaincy is not given to a man merely because he does not break the Ten Commandments. Most of the men who attribute their failures to their honesty should attribute them to the fact that their ambition has been greater than their ability. Nor can cowards achieve the victory which is given only to men who dare suffer disaster and, if necessary, defeat rather than dishonor. No man should undertake to carry the Golden Rule into battle with him unless he is willing to fight, to be wounded, to die for it. Neither morality nor ability nor both combined insure long life and a full purse.

But the life of William Henry Baldwin, Jr., demonstrates that he who is resolved to do honest work, who makes the Golden Rule his standard of honesty, and who is willing to accept the reward which life gives to such honest work as he has ability to perform will find obedience to the Ten Commandments and the Golden Rule, not only no handicap to a life success, but an effective means of achieving it.

THE SPECTATOR

The Spectator alighted at the familiar little country station with the same old inexhaustible feeling of wonder and amusement and delight which he had experienced some twenty-odd times before. There it all was just as he had left it: the same drowsy "teams" hitched beside the platform, the same slowly dissolving group of men, the same white beckoning country road leading off among the hills. And the hills themselves! He had been peering out of the car windows for the last ten miles, craning to catch the first glimpse of Meridian, then of Spruce Mountain, then of Round Top; and his absurd middle-aged heart had thrilled like a boy's, like a lover's, to see them all there just where he had left them.

Manifestly the Spectator was absurd. What should a mountain be doing but standing just where it had been left? And why should one marvel at the recurrence of that which had never failed to recur for the last twenty years? If anything in the Spectator's life was a known and tested reality, Spruce Mountain was. But he had been away for six months, living the other half of his life which the city monopolizes; and the violent contrast of his return, familiar though the experience was, took away his breath. He had boarded this train six hours ago in the Grand Central Station. How he had run to catch it, dashing, dodging, leaping over some baskets and babies in a final spurt! There had been confusion and haste all about him, and a perfect uproar of whistles and bells; but he had not thought much about these things—they were part of the city life. Safe in his seat, he had drawn a novel from his pocket, had read a few pages, and then abruptly had fallen asleep. Thus, for the most part, he had remained until the keen touch of the mountain air had roused him a few miles back and had set him leaping and twisting about the car to catch the first sight of his hills. Now—well, yes, now! In a strictly limited and, on the whole, fairly consistent world

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is it believable that there can be two such utterly different realms as city and country?

"How d'ye do? Glad to see ye back."

The greeting was genial, but it was also unhurried, it took its time; and so did the large brown hand which received the Spectator's. How different from the slap on the shoulder and the "So long, old man!" with which the same Spectator had been hurled aboard the same train a few hours ago! He wanted to laugh aloud—partly from joy and partly from amusement at his own arrested amazement of mind in his changed atmosphere; but he knew that his mirth would be incomprehensible to the farmer who was confronting him, so he restrained himself. He dashed off after his trunk (the city still governing all his muscles), clambered into the waiting wagon, and set his face towards home.

Dash and clamber—what antics are these? The country repose soon reduced them to the aspect of the futile gymnastics of a jointed doll on the end of a string.

"Mis' Belden wanted to know ef you'd bring home some bread an' cake. She ain't got the oven to bakin' real good yet."

Thus the farmer, pulling up his slowly ambling team before the baker's shop.

The Spectator sprang over the wheel. With all the pleasure in the world! He enjoys bakers' shops. But when he had nimbly mounted the steps and had taken the door-knob in hand, he received a definite, tangible check which sobered him once for all. "Hold, now!" that knob said against his palm—cool, imperturbable. "Not so fast, you with your insistent city ways. This is the noon hour, the shop is closed; you can wait or go away."

"Pshaw! Of course!" the Spectator's driver exclaimed behind him in mild concern. "He's gone to his dinner. I might 'a' known. Well, I'll tell you what, I'll drive over an' git him. 'Tain't very far to his house, an' I'm sure he'd be glad to oblige you."

The Spectator sat down on the top step to wait, feeling humbled and happy and suddenly very much at home. Was it possible that only yesterday he had thought that the proper way to go shopping was to hasten at a feverish run from open door to door? The little "business street" slumbered about him, everywhere given over to the hush of its noon hour. There was not a human being in sight—only a lazy cat or two basking in the sun. The mountains loomed at the ends of the street and towered above the roofs of the houses. What a wonderful silence! The Spectator listened one startled moment; then closed his ears and tried to turn his attention away. He had an engagement with that same silence later in his own orchard.

In five or ten minutes the farmer returned, accompanied by the baker.

"So sorry to trouble you!" the Spectator apologized, rising to shake hands.

"Oh, that's all right. Glad to oblige you, I'm sure. Come right along in."

The Spectator has said that he likes bakers' shops. He does; but in the city he finds his dealings with them hampered by his difficulty in avoiding the eyes of the impatient "salesladies" ("Are you waited on, sir?") long enough to survey the stock and make a selection. So that he is forever coming home with the same old variety of éclairs on which he has long since fed to satiety, instead of achieving the further dietetic research on which he had set his heart. No such trouble in this village shop! Every cake, every pie, was discussed and described, every separate pan of rolls recommended; and when the transaction was finally closed and the purchases done up in a huge bundle, with infinite painstaking involutions of string, the Spectator climbed back into the wagon with a sense of thorough accomplishment. He woke the slumbering farmer, and the horses turned their heads towards home.

The city is worth a good deal in itself. The Spectator will realize that keenly come next October. But if it existed only as a foil to the country, it would still have its excellent uses. What a contrast! Six hours ago, close ranks of houses, tumult, and hurry; now, wide green

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meadows, fragrant spring woods, the song of the hermit thrush. Six hours ago, such crowding events of human history on every side that the mind must perforce ignore the most of them; now, a few episodes of the scattered life of the country people, narrated with infinite, slow detail in the farmer's drawling voice, and listened to by the Spectator with whole-hearted absorption. Six hours ago, confusion, exhaustion; now, a wonderful letting go of the whole being, a sweet abandon to the serenely persuasive call of the open fields and the sky. Was it not worth a whole winter's exile to know this joy of return?

After supper, in the spring dusk, the Spectator went up in his orchard and fulfilled that engagement with Silence which he has mentioned above. Once a year only does he meet her, once a year only does he stand in her actual breathing presence and hear her voice delivering the eternal song of the universe. Sitting motionless in the spring grass, with his old friend the woodchuck erect before him at the mouth of his hole, he held his breath, held his thoughts, held the very feelings of his gratified spirit in check, and listened, listened. When, some hours later, he went gravely back to the house to go to bed, he reflected that it is a generous world in which one realm fashions the spirit to receive the best ministrations of the other; and he blessed the city as he went to sleep in the arms of the country.

THE WORLD MISSIONARY CONFERENCE AT EDINBURGH

SPECIAL CORRESPONDENCE

THE twelve hundred delegates and twenty-five hundred visitors who assembled in Edinburgh June 14 to 24 formed a World Missionary Conference of unique character. The Archbishops of Canterbury and York and the Moderators of the Presbyterian Churches of Scotland, the Lord Bishops of Durham and Birmingham and the pastors of dissenting Wesleyan and Baptist chapels, members of the British House of Lords, an ex-Governor of Pennsylvania, William Jennings Bryan, Danish nobles, Swedish bishops, German professors, French and Swiss ministers, the Bishop of Gippsland, diplomats, army and navy officers, university presidents and business men, Australians, New Zealanders, South Africans, and Americans, missionaries from every non-Christian land under the sun, and, not least, Christian leaders of the growing Churches of Asia, Africa, and the Pacific Islands—was there ever before such a broadly representative assemblage? Speakers from different lands followed one another with kaleidoscopic variety. Canadians, Scotchmen, Irishmen, East Indians, New Zealanders, Japanese, Continentals, Englishmen, Chinese, negroes, and Americans passed in quick procession under the inexorable seven-minute rule, and then the whole vast assemblage bowed in prayer under the leadership of an Anglican Lord Bishop or the pastor of a Presbyterian church in Baltimore.

All this meant cosmopolitan discussions. Subjects received consideration from all points of view. A national or sectarian expression was apt to be followed by the corrective of the opposite position. Men made it clear that they were not compromising their convictions. A speaker who felt obliged to state that he was loyal to the historic attitude of "the Catholic Church," standing between Protestants and Roman Catholics, found that the next speaker as frankly avowed himself a loyal Methodist or Baptist, and both were applauded with equal impartiality by an audience a majority of whom were not in sympathy with either. Bishop Brent and the Bishop of Southwark deplored the

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isolation of the Roman Catholic Church, and longed for the time when "that historic Christian communion" would be with us, and the Rev. Dr. William H. Roberts, of Philadelphia, declared that he was not yet ready to apologize for the Protestant Reformation. The spirit of unity was dominant, the absence of friction and jealousy notable. Never before have representatives of such diverse schools of religious thought met on one platform, and never before was such tolerance manifested.

The Conference, as a whole, afforded no clue to the method by which organic union may be attained. No ecclesiastical or theological position was abandoned, nor was any sign of abandonment apparent. Everybody announced his love for everybody else and his ardent longing for unity; but few indicated any disposition to make any compromise to secure it. The Conference was not intended to deal with such matters, and it was loyal to its intention.

Nevertheless, that Conference probably did more to promote union than any other single event in history, and this in three ways:

First, it created an atmosphere of such warmth and pervasiveness of fraternal feeling that it will inevitably soften the ice of denominational barriers.

Second, it will lead many to restudy the whole question of sectarian differences, not to obtain fresh material for controversy, but to see whether our differences are really as vital as we have deemed them to be.

Third, the Conference was a tremendous demonstration that a large measure of unity already exists and that, if the time has not come to formulate mechanical methods of reunion, we may help on the good movement by recognizing the unity which has silently been developing about us. Most foreign missionaries are teaching the non-Christian world the essentials of Christianity which are held in common by all bodies of Christians. There is not a quarter as much sectarianism abroad as there is at home; and there is less of it in foreign missionary circles at home than anywhere else. It is significant that Foreign Missions is the only platform on which a World Conference could have been held.

A candid facing of defects and obstacles was among the marked characteristics of the Conference. There was little boasting of past achievements, but much serious thought of past mistakes and a courageous and determined effort to learn the lessons of experience and to adapt methods to the changed conditions of the twentieth century. This Conference stood with its face to the future. It proposed to restudy and restate a world enterprise in the terms of the modern world. No critic of foreign missions was ever more severe than these experts in mission work. But, unlike the average critic, these men knew what they were talking about, and the results are therefore likely to be wholesome.

The sweep of the subjects discussed in the Conference was impressive. No little topics engaged the men and women who had come from all parts of the world. Presentation centered in eight great Commissions. They had been appointed by an International Committee of nineteen, which met in Oxford, England, in July, 1908. The whole range of missions in its relation to the modern world was distributed among these Commissions under the eight general heads as follows:

1, Carrying the Gospel to All the Non-Christian World; 2, The Church in the Mission Field; 3, Education in Relation to the Christianization of National Life; 4, The Missionary Message in Relation to Non-Christian Religions; 5, The Preparation of Missionaries; 6, The Home Base of Missions; 7, Missions and Governments; 8, Co-operation and the Promotion of Unity. Each Commission was constituted of carefully selected experts of several nations, and performed an enormous amount of preliminary work, thoroughly studying its particular subject, corresponding with specialists all over the world, collecting opinions and experience from every possible source, and then concentrating results of its investigations in a report which was printed and placed in the hands of delegates before the Conference opened.

The very magnitude to which the foreign missionary enterprise has grown calls not so much for exultation as for a sense of solemn responsibility. It was comparatively easy to supervise the early stages

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of the work, when there were but few missionaries and a small expenditure. But now there are 19,280 missionaries, 98,388 native workers, 1,925,205 adult communicants, 5,291,871 adherents, 81 colleges and universities, 489 normal and theological colleges, 111 medical colleges, 92 nurses' training schools, 1,594 boarding and high schools, 284 industrial training schools, 113 kindergartens, 28,901 elementary and village schools, 1,574 hospitals and dispensaries which treated in a single year 4,231,635 patients, 265 orphanages, 88 leper asylums, 21 homes for untainted children of lepers, 25 institutions for the blind and for deaf-mutes, 21 rescue homes for fallen women, 103 opium refuges, 15 homes for widows, 28 industrial homes, and the annual expenditure is $24,613,000, while $2,726,000 more are contributed by the natives themselves. Foreign missions has thus become a vast undertaking. It affects the character and destiny of two-thirds of the human race. Such a movement demands clearness of vision, soundness of judgment, statesmanship, and administrative capacity of the highest order.

The altered world conditions under which missionary work must be conducted had full and frank recognition at Edinburgh. The modern foreign missionary enterprise is highly complex. It includes not only the immediate proclamation of the Gospel, but all the varied forms of work which are involved in the establishment and development of a Christian Church and the practical outworkings of the Gospel in human society. It is trite to say that our work is conducted along four lines—evangelistic, educational, medical, and literary; but each of these represents many kinds of effort and institutions of different kinds. Moreover, the foreign missionary enterprise is affected by the political, social, and intellectual changes which are taking place in the Far East, and it is in turn influencing those changes. Indeed, this enterprise has been one of the potent factors in creating the extraordinary situation which exists to-day. No one can understand modern missions without understanding, to some extent at least, the peoples among whom missionary work is conducted—their traditions, social customs, religious beliefs, the attitude of officials, the new forces which are operating upon them, and the wide variety of problems and relations which are involved. An undertaking which proposes to reconstruct the character of enormous and alien populations, and which involves the transformation of society and a new direction of human life, inevitably raises problems more profound and complicated than any other known to man.

It was distinctly a Conference for discussion rather than a mass-meeting for inspiration. There were programmes with selected speakers at the parallel meetings in Synod Hall and the Church of Scotland Assembly Church, and also at all evening meetings; but in the Conference proper, in Assembly Hall, there were no selected speakers except for the forty-five minutes allowed to the Commission reporting for the day. All the rest of the day was thrown open to free, informal discussion, from which the members of the reporting Commission were rigidly excluded. Any delegate could send up a card giving his name and the phase of the general subject which he wished to discuss, and the chairman called the names with praiseworthy impartiality. Many who sent up cards could not be called upon for lack of time, but the only apparent principle of selection was the prevention of overlapping and the securing of due distribution of the time between names, nationalities, and subtopics.

The Conference differed from former conferences in that all the presiding officers were laymen. This, of course, was due to the fact that in a country where lines are sharply drawn between Established and Nonconformist Churches it would not have been easy to select clergymen who would be acceptable to both sides, nor would attempts at rotation have been satisfactory. The selection of laymen avoided all embarrassing distinctions. Fortunately, laymen were available who were pre-eminently qualified to preside. Lord Balfour of Burleigh was Chairman of the Conference, and the Vice-Chairmen were Lord Reay, Sir John H. Kennaway, and Sir A. H. L. Fraser. Other distinguished laymen presided at some of the evening popular meetings, among them three Americans: Hon. Seth Low, General James A. Beaver, and Mr. Sam-

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uel B. Capen. For the practical discussions the happy plan was adopted of having the Conference go into committee of the whole under the chairmanship of our fellow-countryman Mr. John R. Mott. He was chosen, not only because he is a layman, but because his work as General Secretary of the World's Student Christian Federation is so distinctly international and interdenominational in character that no one thinks of him in connection with a particular church or country.

Resolutions, with one exception, presently to be noted, were excluded. This rule was adopted because the Conference had no legislative authority and resolutions would have been of no value except as mere expressions of opinion; because after a consensus of opinion becomes apparent it is so easy to waste valuable time in debating forms of statement, amendments, and all the devices of parliamentary procedure; because innumerable hobbies and enterprises were clamoring for the indorsement of such a distinguished assemblage; and because the ecclesiastical and theological differences of delegates from every nation and communion were so numerous and distinct that it would have been highly unwise to open the door to resolutions which, however satisfactory to some, would have been unsatisfactory to others. Indeed, some societies were willing to come into the Conference only on the condition that their convictions and methods should not be at the mercy of a majority vote of those who differed with them. The one exception referred to was the formation of a Continuation Committee. It is disastrous to get a wide vision and a noble inspiration and then fail to act upon them. Too many conventions from which great things were expected have accomplished little because their effect was dissipated by inaction. There was a general feeling at Edinburgh that this World Missionary Conference had set in motion forces which should not be permitted to stop, that talking and praying must be followed by doing. A Continuation Committee was appointed, international and representative in character, to carry out, on the lines of the Conference itself, the following duties:

(1) To maintain in prominence the idea of the World Missionary Conference as a means of co-ordinating missionary work, of laying sound lines for future development, and of generating and claiming by corporate action fresh stores of spiritual force for the evangelization of the world.

(2) To finish any further investigations, or any formulation of the results of investigations, which may remain after the World Missionary Conference is over, and may be referred to it.

(3) To consider when a further World Missionary Conference is desirable and to make the initial preparations.

(4) To devise plans for maintaining the intercourse which the World Missionary Conference has stimulated between different bodies of workers, *e. g.*, by literature or by a system of correspondence and mutual report, or the like.

(5) To place its services at the disposal of the Home Boards in any steps which they may be led to take (in accordance with the recommendation of more than one Commission) towards closer mutual counsel and practical co-operation.

(6) To confer with the societies and boards as to the best method of working towards the formation of such a permanent International Missionary Committee as is suggested by the Commissions of the Conference and by various missionary bodies apart from the Conference.

(7) And to take such steps as may seem desirable to carry out, by the formation of special committees, or otherwise, any practical suggestions made in the reports of the Commissions.

The Committee consists of ten members from the Continent of Europe, ten from Great Britain, ten from North America, and one each from Australasia, China, Japan, India, and Africa respectively—thirty-five in all.

The appointment of this Continuation Committee is a long step toward more united and effective work. It is the first effort to co-ordinate the vast but hitherto unrelated missionary organizations of the world. It cannot, of course, deal with questions of ecclesiastical union, but it can help mightily toward a better understanding. It can collect and make available the facts and experiences of widely separated workers, and it can study the whole missionary enterprise and its related problems in a thorough and comprehensive

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way. The Committee, as an Edinburgh paper well said, insures that the greatest missionary Conference that the world has yet seen will not end merely in talk, but that the work so auspiciously inaugurated will be carried on with intelligent purpose.

The Conference itself was incomparably greater and more impressive than any particular things that were said or done. An extraordinary number of eminent men were present, and many of them spoke, but no address of a remarkable character was delivered, while some very able men did not appear on the platform at all. The great dignitaries in Church and State spoke well, but what they said derived interest from their position, and would have been deemed commonplace from lesser men. The seven-minute rule was conducive to rapid and effective general discussion, but not to great addresses. Perhaps this feeling regarding the addresses was due in part, however, to the nature of the occasion. This was so memorable in its character and significance, its outlook was so wide, and the spirit of prayer and of responsibility was so pervasive that it was hardly in the power of any one to give adequate vocal expression to it. We felt throughout the Conference that we were in the presence of solemnities which made the words of man seem weak. No delegate is likely to think of any particular personality as dominant or of any particular address as fully equal to the occasion. The Chairman did his important work quietly, swiftly announcing the names of speakers, and rising when the electrically operated bell automatically sounded the time limit. But every delegate carried away with an almost overpowering sense of the Divine presence a solemn feeling that the Conference was all that he had expected it to be and more, because God was using it to clarify visions, and rebuke failures, and strengthen resolves, and reveal a work needing Christ and a Christ adequate to the world. This gathering of world leaders gave a new sense of unity and power to workers in distant and widely separated fields. As soldiers who have been fighting in small bodies out of sight of one another come suddenly into the open and realize with new hope and courage that they are part of a mighty army, so the World Missionary Conference brought into view the whole vast scope of the movement to evangelize the non-Christian world. An enterprise of such magnitude and commanding the earnest support of the ablest men and the best women of Christendom has passed the experimental stage. It is a force to be reckoned with. It testifies more eloquently than any words could do to the fact that Christianity is not a decadent faith, as some allege, and that the wider outlook of the twentieth century and the deeper study of the Word of God and of the world of men have not "cut the nerve of missions." An impotent religion does not raise $24,613,000 annually to propagate its faith among other peoples and assemble the strongest intellects of the civilized world to study how to enlarge the work and to do it more effectively. The Christ who summoned his disciples to carry his Gospel to the whole race is more clearly than ever the supreme force in the world. Christianity as we exemplify it may or may not be worth propagating, but Christ is worth propagating, and foreign missions is simply the organized earnest effort of his followers to make him intelligently known and sincerely accepted of all men.

ARTHUR JUDSON BROWN.

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AMERICAN MISSIONARIES ABROAD

BY CHARLES W. FAIRBANKS

FORMER VICE-PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES

IT is impossible to exaggerate the importance of the widespread influence of American missionaries in foreign lands. They are carrying forward the work of evangelization and civilization among the distant peoples of the earth in a more comprehensive and effective way than is generally understood. They are to be found in all climes, among all races, laboring with a zeal and singleness of purpose which awaken our most ardent admiration. They are spreading the blessings of Christianity among the mighty masses of heathen; they are acquainting many millions who are alien to us with the blessings of the Gospel and the principles of American liberty and American political institutions. Wherever they go they bear in one hand the Bible of our fathers and in the other the flag of the Republic.

Our country leads the world in the number of foreign missions and in the contributions made for the purpose of carrying forward the great work. The influence of America, which is felt in many lands, is due in a greater degree to the labors and sacrifices of the missionaries than it is to our statesmanship or our men of trade and commerce. The better side of America is made familiar to millions in non-Christian countries; a vast army of noble men and women in the name of the Christian Churches of America are lifting them into a better conception of the true significance of a great Christian nation. The disinterested purpose of the missionaries is becoming more and more apparent, and that they are laboring in the interest of humanity in its broadest and best sense is coming to be appreciated in the field of their labors.

The benefits accruing to countries where our missions are established challenge any attempt at measurement; God Almighty alone knows how far-reaching are the blessings which flow from them. Their efforts tend greatly to improve the moral, intellectual, physical, and industrial welfare of those for whom they labor and for whose well-being they freely give their services and the best there is in their lives. With the awakening of the people in distant countries to better conditions in life, through their labor and teachings, comes an increased respect for the United States.

While the missionaries do not concern themselves with respect to the political affairs of the people among whom they work, nevertheless the logical effect of their efforts to Christianize them is to awaken them to a larger appreciation of their natural rights; hence they demand an increasing part in the administration of their public affairs. As Christianity teaches men the dignity of manhood, it tends to lift them to a higher conception of their duties and responsibilities in life, and the result is that they are insisting upon the right to sit in parliament and participate in an increasing degree in the enactment of the laws by which they are governed. This fact is becoming very obvious in Japan, China, India, and Turkey. The Syrian Protestant College at Beirut and Robert College upon the Bosphorus had a most powerful influence upon the movement which overthrew the old régime two years ago, placed the Young Turks in control of the Ottoman Empire, and gave the Empire a parliament. These colleges are not, strictly speaking, a part of the missionary movement. They are supported, however, by contributions from American Christians and thoroughly coordinate with the missionaries.

The Christian movement is very pronounced throughout Asia; its manifestation is plainly to be seen in the unrest which widely prevails there. The phenomenon is recognized, yet the cause is not generally appreciated. Japan has been stirred to new activities; she has been touched with the spirit of the West—and that is Christian civilization. Korea, whose pathetic history touches us profoundly, is gradually coming into new life. China, that mighty Dragon, is groping her way towards the light. Since the Boxer uprising a decade ago she has made notable progress, outstripping a century's previous advance. The mis-

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sionaries in this vast Empire have labored with a devotion and self-sacrifice which are altogether admirable. Many of them have indeed placed their lives upon the sacrificial altar of Christian duty. But a few years ago many of them suffered martyrs' deaths in a most cruel manner; and only recently others have been put to death by ignorance and superstition. The savagery of the heathen has not hitherto reduced the ranks of the missionaries, for in the places of those who fell others in augmented numbers have offered themselves and taken up the work in which the martyrs were engaged. Those who have fallen at the post of duty and of honor have but emphasized by their martyrdom the necessity of further missionary effort. When in China, I saw the ruins of many of the homes of missionaries, the result of the Boxer outbreak. They stand as mute witnesses of blind, superstitious vengeance. They had no deterrent effect, however, for the missionaries who survived quickly returned and built amidst the ashes of their former homes and took up the work to which they had been called with a superb zeal which has won for them respect and admiration. Their sublime faith and their unselfish devotion to others in the face of persecution have tended to impress favorably those in whose behalf they were laboring.

India and Turkey are also awakening as never before; they are slowly but surely upon the advance. The motive power is Christian civilization, which is touching them upon many sides. Organized missions are to be found in both these countries at all strategic centers, and we shall watch their future progress with hopeful interest.

The critics of foreign missions are pleased to assert that but a small amount of the money invested reaches those for whose benefit it is given. They do not agree as to the percentage which falls short of its purpose. I have sometimes thought those who most freely make such charges are persons who have the least investment in the cause. My observation has been that no trust funds—and there is none more sacred—were ever more faithfully administered than those which are given for the support of our foreign missions. We do not, of course, put our mission work upon a commercial basis; our contributions are not intended to yield current interest in kind. The return which comes from investment in the missionary service is infinitely higher and better and richer than all this. The suggestion that the funds appropriated are not expended with either integrity or good judgment is unsupported by the facts. Those who are engaged in the missionary movement abroad are as faithful to trust and duty as any one to be found in any other calling anywhere. The missionaries, as a general rule, conserve their resources with intelligent fidelity and make the most of their opportunities; they are not given to luxurious or extravagant living and are obliged to practice economy in the most rigid way. They content themselves frequently with the barest necessities and give up all thought of the comforts which they would enjoy at home. They know what self-abnegation means, for they practice it in greater or less degree throughout their service. They must, of course, live respectably and spend modestly; they cannot be expected to do more nor less than this.

While we cannot be expected to put the missionary movement upon a commercial footing, and while no one interested in the subject in its larger and better aspect takes thought of this feature, nevertheless it tends to open up avenues for the extension of American commerce. Millions of dollars' worth of trade have been secured to the United States through the direct or indirect influence of our missionaries; as they awaken the people with whom they labor to a better civilization, as they increase their wants and necessities (which come quite naturally from the improvement of their moral, intellectual, and social condition), the opportunity for American commerce abroad is enlarged.

The missionary field is attracting a high grade of young men and young women; many of them, college graduates of the first rank, are going into the different countries of Asia. I have met them and witnessed the zeal with which they have gone among those distant peoples, not for their own benefit, but for the uplifting of those who are walking in darkness. They are doing a great work; a work for hu-

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manity in its broadest and best sense; a work for America and for those whose benevolence supports them; and they are doing good work for the various Christian denominations whose commissions they bear. They are entitled to praise and not criticism; to commendation and not rebuke. They are comparatively few; the masses with whom they labor reach into the hundreds of millions. There is room for many more besides them. We do not wonder that they have not accomplished more; our surprise is that they have accomplished so much. The obstacles which they are obliged to overcome seem often almost insurmountable; only the strong-hearted, impelled by a high sense of Christian duty, enter upon the great task. In order to fit themselves for their service they must learn a strange and difficult language; they must acquaint themselves with the lives, the habits, the traditions, and the prejudices of people whose inherited superstitions are deeply rooted; they must spend years in the work of preliminary preparation and get the confidence of those whom they attempt to serve before much headway can be made towards their conversion. It is, in short, a work requiring time and great perseverance and the noblest effort. The rewards do not always seem commensurate with the labor and sacrifice except to those who realize that the consciousness of Christian duty well done is reward enough.

Now and then it is suggested that conversions in Asia are not genuine. No doubt all who profess Christianity do not adhere to their profession. Exceptions are, of course, to be found everywhere, in all countries, Christian and non-Christian alike. There is no doubt that the percentage of those who profess Christianity in Asia and adhere to their faith is very large. This vast country affords some of the finest examples of firm Christian believers to be found anywhere. I have seen many converts, especially in China, who are splendid types of devout Christians, steadfast in their faith. I have seen some who were hunted like wild beasts during the Boxer rebellion, and only escaped by long hiding; they understood thoroughly well that discovery by their pursuers meant sure death by indescribably fiendish torture. They were in many cases offered immunity if they would recant, but death to them was preferable. Some who were apprehended, and who refused to deny their faith in the presence of the sword and the fagot, were massacred without mercy.

While the work of evangelization holds first place in the thought and effort of the missionaries, as it always should, the field of Christian endeavor is continually expanding. While the missionaries preach the Gospel they are founding kindergartens, schools, and colleges, where secular education is taught ranging from the merest rudiments to courses more or less advanced. A Christian atmosphere, of course, pervades them all, and the social life of the student is improved and stimulated. Industrial education is introduced and more and more emphasized, and with excellent results. Boys and girls are being taught useful work, and many of them become well-trained artificers, for, as a rule, they are ready imitators. They have a passion to learn, and there is no limit to their patience and endurance. The former are taught carpentry, wood-carving, weaving, the making of mats and baskets, pottery, ironwork, and so on. The girls are taught to sew, weave, make lace, embroider, and are also instructed in domestic science, with which the Asiatic is quite unfamiliar. The missionaries are also teaching the gospel of cleanliness, of which there is widespread need, for the people of Asia, as a rule, disregard all hygienic laws which Western civilization regards essential, and, as a consequence, they invite diseases which frequently become epidemic and sweep away whole villages with cyclonic fury.

One of the most important features of the missionary work is found in the education of the girls and women of the Philippines, Japan, Korea, China, and Turkey—in short, throughout the whole of Asia. In all of this vast area woman has reached her lowest estate. Her coming into the world is generally regarded as a misfortune visited upon her parents, and she is usually born to a life of menial service and to conditions which are utterly destructive of all the finer instincts and nobler aspirations which are the crowning glory of Christian women. Our missionaries

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are lifting the female half of the hundreds of millions of Asia into a gradual appreciation of the dignities and possibilities of womanhood. There can, of course, be no redemption of a race without the redemption of the motherhood of the race.

I visited many schools in the principal countries of Asia where boys and girls were enjoying the blessings of home life in dormitories, which tended greatly to improve their social condition and to win them over from old customs to the adoption of Christian methods and manners. It is not possible to introduce American methods in their completeness among the great heathen mass, for they cannot be lifted to our standard, and any attempt so to lift them would end in failure. But they may be raised to a much higher plane than they now occupy. The boys and girls in these missionary dormitories are contented and happy in their new and wholesome environment; their improvement over others less fortunate than they in their opportunities is of the most striking character.

The missionary medical schools and hospitals also tend in a very considerable degree to improve the habits and social customs of the people. Natives are learning the sciences of medicine and surgery, and are gradually abandoning their ancient crude and heathenish practices. Native nurses are trained to minister to their own people with skill and sympathetic devotion. The missionaries are not only training the minds and hands of these people, but they are awakening in their hearts a sympathetic interest in those who are about them. In the ministrations of physicians and nurses, in the wholesome influence of medical schools, hospitals, orphanages, and asylums for the blind and others upon whom heavy bodily affliction has been laid, the natives are brought more and more to appreciate the blessings of Christian civilization.

The need of medical missionaries is one of the most urgent in the vast field of mission endeavor in foreign lands. Many Christian men and women practitioners are required, and medical schools, with their corps of instructors to teach the natives, who in turn shall become practitioners and teachers, are imperatively demanded.

The missionaries have done much to improve marriage customs which were, and in many places still are, in a wretched state. Unless the people of Asia are brought to see the necessity of improvement in this respect there is no chance to uplift the home and better their social condition. The Christians are putting the ban of their disapproval upon child marriages and upon concubinage, with results which are at present gratifying and full of reassurance for the future.

Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations are splendid auxiliaries of the missionary movement. They are rallying centers for Christians and non-Christians. They tend to inculcate a co-operative spirit among their membership and a larger interest in others. They exercise a good moral influence and are having a beneficial effect upon the social conditions of the young people, and are tending strongly to win the non-Christians to Christianity.

Credit must be given to the missionaries for the great headway which has been made to release China from the tremendous grip of opium-smoking. This national blight seems now to be in process of extermination. The governing powers have been moved by Christian appeal to forbid the growing of the poppy by edicts which are being enforced in apparent good faith and often in the severest and most drastic manner. Thousands of acres which were given over to the production of the accursed poppy have in the past few years been devoted to the production of cereals. If China shall secure her redemption from the paralyzing curse of opium-smoking, she will be indebted for it largely to Christian missionaries. The missionaries have also made war against gambling in China, which is a nation-wide evil and extremely vitiating in its effects upon Chinese character. It ranks with opium-smoking as one of the great deterrent influences upon Chinese progress. They are also battling against "squeeze" or, as we would say, "graft," which has a strong hold upon the people of this venerable Empire. It is well intrenched in high and low places; and it is one of the hopeful signs of the movement that there is growing up a considerable

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sentiment against a practice which has almost reached the dignity of a system and which is debauching and demoralizing to the conscience of the people; destructive alike to the public and private morals, and a hindrance to social advance.

I have thought that we do not appreciate fully the difficulties encountered by the missionaries. They have a heavy and often a thankless task. They are obliged to combat immemorial prejudices, inherited superstitions, and thoroughly ingrained caste. These impediments to progress are not easily removed; efforts to that end are not quickly crowned with success. Patience—almost infinite patience—and persistent effort inspired by Christian faith are essential to overcome them. Progress among hundreds of millions throughout Asia is necessarily slow, yet it is gratifying to observe everywhere that it is nevertheless real. The missionary forces are moving with irresistible power, yet the great mass has scarcely been touched. Caste and superstition, which have for countless centuries held dominion over the bodies, minds, and souls of many hundreds of millions of the human family, still hold the larger share of them in their paralyzing grasp.

We have good cause to be proud of our missionaries. They are in the best sense Evangels of Christ and Noncommissioned Ambassadors of the great Republic.

HOW FAR ARE THE STARS?

BY N. W. MUMFORD

WE are used to looking at the sky on a clear night and remembering that we have heard that the objects we see are an immense, and generally unmeasured, distance away. Real interest often is aroused by the sight of something familiar. If the moon is up, we cannot help giving it a thought and realizing, perhaps, that it is the earth's satellite, and that it is constantly moving eastward in an orbit that takes it about a month to complete. Also we may remember that, for a heavenly body, it is very close to us, and that its distance is pretty accurately known in miles, namely, about 240,000 on the average. In spite of the fact that this distance represents a journey of nine or ten times around the earth at the equator, the interval of separation is entirely comprehensible, and we never speak of it except in terms of the same unit of measurement that we use in regard to distant places on the earth.

A little closer study of the night sky will develop familiarity with some of the other objects. We recognize a few of the bright stars that seem unfixed, and know that they are planets, parts of our solar system, revolving about the sun as our globe does, and moving rather erratically among the other stars on the background. Professional mathematicians who have gone in for astronomy have measured their distances too, and we know that any book on the subject will give the amount of their intervals of separation from the sun or from us in miles also, quite accurately considering the size of the figures. There are only five of these stars that are easily visible, and by their color, or place in the sky, or movement, we can learn to name them correctly. A lucky or careful watcher will pick out Mercury very close to the sun just before sunrise or after sunset. Venus will be seen in the same part of the sky, but generally farther from the sun, and at times very bright indeed, in fact visible in daylight. Both of these revolve around the sun inside of the earth's orbit.

First beyond the earth—that is, with the earth between it and the sun, for we must understand that all the planets revolve practically in the same plane, an immense plate or disc with the sun at the center—comes Mars, which is red in color and appears brightest at intervals of about two years. Then comes Jupiter, annually outshining all the stars except Venus, and lastly Saturn. Uranus,

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though visible, is very faint, and Neptune cannot be seen without a good telescope.

The distances of all of these from the sun are figured in millions of miles, but the numbers are large and awkward to handle; besides which, we have nothing at hand with which to compare such distances, and they lose all meaning. So a comparison with the earth's distance from the sun is adopted. An immense amount of labor has been spent in determining this standard distance, and it is now figured at about 93,000,000 miles. Hence 93,000,000 miles is a measuring line used in determining distances in our solar system, and is called the Astronomical Unit. It is also used in the measurements of space beyond our system, but for that purpose we shall find it all too short. Roughly speaking, on this scale of measurement, we find Mercury about .4 of an astronomical unit (A. U.) from the sun; Venus about .7, Mars 1.5, Jupiter 5, Saturn 9, Uranus 19, and Neptune 30. So the discovery of Uranus in 1781 doubled the extent of the solar system. Strictly speaking, Neptune is not the outermost known member of our system, for some of the comets journey beyond him. We know that Halley's Comet at aphelion, its greatest distance from the sun, is 5 A. U. outside of Neptune, though not in the same plane with the planets.

After an acquaintance with the conspicuous and wandering planets, what of the hundreds and thousands of stars in the background that never seem to change their positions in regard to each other? It is a curious fact that the visible, or, scientifically speaking, the "lucid" stars, are quite countable, and, in fact, not so very numerous. About 6,000 could be seen in both hemispheres by good eyes, hence 3,000 at any one time. But this number has to be reduced to about 2,000 on a fair night, on account of horizon mists and dense atmosphere that obscure the stars for ten or fifteen degrees above the horizon.

Bruno, a learned monk, was the first modern to announce that the stars were suns. Our sun, the star we are best acquainted with, shows great change of position in the heavens, because of the earth's revolution around it, and all the members of the solar system appear to change their places, partly for the same reason. The earth in its annual journey is, of course, directly opposite the point in its orbit that it occupied six months before, and hence is distant from such a point by the diameter of its orbit, treating the latter as a circle. So a change of base or position of 186,000,000 miles must be reflected by a corresponding change in the position of any object in our system or anywhere near it. But up to 1840 no such change of position *was* noted in any star, in spite of the time and energy expended on the search, and astronomers were forced to the conclusion that the distance of the stars was unthinkable, and in that attitude they were right.

This failure in scientific research was a stumbling-block to the advancement of learning. It was an argument, apparently strong, against the Copernican system. How could the earth make its immense journey around the sun without causing a shift of position of a single star in the heavens?

We must stop to consider the principle upon which star distances are worked out. It is that of triangulation; and the solutions of the problems are the most abstruse that mathematical astronomers have to deal with. To resolve the triangle, one angle is already known, the right angle at the sun; one side is known, the distance from the sun to the earth; and one remaining angle must be worked out, the one at the star whose distance is to be measured. The angle that the observer attempts to measure is a fraction of a second of arc, and a second of arc is one 3600th of a degree, and five degrees is the distance between the "Pointers" of the "Big Dipper"!

By our annual motion around the sun, on January 1 the earth is 186,000,000 miles from the place where it was or will be on July 1. Hence a base line is supplied, two astronomical units long, but very short indeed for the purpose in hand. To quote Sir Robert Ball: "As the observer moves around the whole orbit in the annual revolution of the earth, the star appears to move in an ellipse on the background of the sky. In the technical language of astronomers, we speak of this as the parallactic ellipse, and it is by measuring the longest diameter of this ellipse

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that we determine the distance of the star from the sun. Half of this diameter, or, what comes to the same thing, the angle which the earth's distance from the sun subtends (stretches across or measures) as seen from the star, is called the star's 'annual parallax,'" and this annual parallax is the measure above referred to as always a fraction of a second of arc. To get away from any approach to technicality, we may say that the star observed seems to reproduce a miniature of the earth's orbit on the sky, whose diameter depends on the star's distance.

Sir Robert Ball speaks of the path of the star as an ellipse, because it is such. If the star is exactly perpendicular to the plane of the earth's orbit, its reproduced ellipse will be the shape of our orbit. The farther away the star is from this point in the sky, called the pole of the ecliptic, the more elliptical will the figure be; so that when a star is just in the plane of our revolution (on the ecliptic), it will appear to swing back and forth in a minute straight line, with the earth's yearly motion; just as our orbit viewed edgewise from a great distance would appear a straight line.

Suppose a star fixed a few million miles above the sun, perpendicular to the plane of the planets' orbits. In our annual revolution it would appear to change its position enormously against the sky. Suppose it receded in a straight line from the sun, still perpendicular to the common plane; as we revolved in our orbit it would seem to revolve, in an ellipse; and its orbit clearly would grow less and less as its distance increased. But our path of revolution seems very large to us, and 186,000,000 miles for a base line seems long enough to measure anything. Nevertheless, our receding star, in order to join its fellows, must move to a distance so great that only the finest instruments and the most laborious research can detect that it responds to the earth's revolution at all; to a distance so great that the whole circumference of the earth's orbit dwindles to a mere point. The ellipse formed by the nearest star known to us is smaller than a quarter of a dollar would appear at a distance of two miles.

In 1840, with the recently perfected heliometer, Bessel measured the first real stellar parallax and worked out a star distance. It took courage and something of a gambler's instinct to make the first heliometer. A costly object-glass was cut exactly in half, an operation that appeared to ruin a good telescope. There is only one heliometer in the United States, that belonging to Yale University. Nowadays the camera has been added to the instruments for detecting stellar parallax. While Bessel was working over star No. 61 of the Swan, Henderson, at the Cape of Good Hope, was at work on the brightest star of the constellation Centaur, in the southern hemisphere, and published his results at about the same time. These stars were selected for the work because of certain peculiarities: both are double stars, two suns revolving about each other, and both have considerable proper motion —that is, independent motion of their own across the sky; and for the latter reason it was assumed that they were among the nearer stars. When a star is moving across the line of sight, the more rapidly it moves, the nearer it may be assumed to be. This is by no means always the case, for large proper motion is found in stars whose distance is far greater than our ability to measure. The term "fixed stars" we now know to be merely relative, as compared with the members of our solar system. All stars move. Since Bessel's time the distance of seventy or eighty stars out of the whole sky has been fairly measured, and the distance of forty-three is pretty well known.

All this labor goes to show that our system seems to be isolated in space. The sun's nearest neighbor, Alpha Centauri, is 270,000 A. U. distant, having a parallax of .75″. This figure would have to be multiplied by 93,000,000 to get the distance in miles. Here a new unit of measurement is introduced, which serves very well for such immense distances, where no great accuracy is possible.

We speak of the suns or fixed stars as so many "light-years" distant; that is, their distance is measured by the number of *years* it takes for light to reach us from them. Consider the velocity of light, at 186,000 miles per second, in our own system. The light of the sun reaches us in about eight minutes; it arrives at the outermost known planet, Neptune, in four

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hours. Sunlight is reflected from the moon to us in one and a fourth seconds. The interval covered by the flight of light in one year is, of course, 186,000 times the number of seconds in a year. Yet the light of the very nearest star in the whole heavens takes several years to reach us! The first star of the Centaur is about four and one-half light-years distant. Mr. Edward Irving has taken pains to give us an idea of what this distance means: "Some spider thread is so extremely fine and light that a single pound of it would be long enough to reach around the earth. To reach our moon would require nearly ten pounds of it. To go to the sun would take 3,712 pounds. Neptune's distance would require 56 tons of it, but to reach the nearest star would take 500,000 tons." Suppose we adopt a scale with the moon's distance equal to one inch. On this scale the sun will be over thirty-two feet away, but the distance of the nearest star will be 1,636 miles—from New York to Denver.

It is natural to look among the bright stars, the so-called first magnitude stars, for the nearer ones. Yet among the twenty brightest there are only ten whose distance is fairly fixed at less than one hundred light-years. But though the distances of half the first magnitude stars have not been determined, it is generally agreed that none of them is among the more remote stars.

A small parallax, .026″, is thought to have been found for Arcturus, the brilliant yellow star of the Herdsman, overhead in June evenings, and well in the west in August. Its distance has been given at 126 light-years. There are four of the first magnitude without parallax—Canopus, Spica, Rigel, and Deneb. The case of Canopus is the most remarkable. It is a southern hemisphere star, and the second brightest in the sky, outshone only by Sirius. What can be the real size of a sun of such brilliance? We only know that it cannot be less than 200 light-years away, and must give thousands of times as much light as our sun.

In winter in our latitude Sirius first attracts attention. Its distance is 9 light-years, and parallax .37″. It is almost a neighbor, and gives us over one hundred times as much light as 61 of the Swan, whose distance is 6½ light-years, and parallax .50″. A fourth magnitude star in the constellation Hercules, called Eta Herculis, is 7½ light-years distant. The Pole star is nearly five times as far away as Sirius; and Vega, the point toward which our whole system is traveling at 12½ miles per second, is a little nearer to us than Polaris. There is no danger of collision with Vega, for in the course of ages when the sun arrives in that part of the universe Vega will have changed its position by hundreds of light-years.

The stars of the great constellation of Orion are almost immeasurably distant. The famous group of the Seven Stars that we call the Pleiades will never be nearer. We know that they are not less than 200 light-years away, and are receding from us. A learned astronomer of seventy years ago here placed the center of the universe, around which all else revolved; and upon Alcyone, the chief star of the Pleiades, was fixed the throne of Omnipotence.

The stupendous arch of the Galaxy, or Milky Way, is now recognized to consist of a continuous stream or belt of stars "poured round all;" made up of clouds of suns too far away to be separately distinguished, and split with a cleft of considerable length through part of its course. The lucid stars and constellations that we see against the background of the Galaxy are probably well within the belt. The solar system appears to lie close to its plane, possibly not very far removed from its center. No doubt many thousand years are needed for light to cross this ring.

Many astronomers have participated in the attempt to sound the depths of space and to measure the distance of the suns, but probably the most reliable results have been those obtained by Sir David Gill, of the Cape of Good Hope, and Dr. Elkins, of New Haven.

After a discussion of the extent of the universe, Simon Newcomb, whose word is the last on astronomical matters, concludes that the light of the faintest telescopic stars is between 3,000 and 4,000 years in reaching us.

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SOME FAILURES OF AMERICAN WOMEN

BY MRS. NEWELL DWIGHT HILLIS

FOR several decades it has been the custom in our own country and in Europe to announce to the public through the press the great events in family history. A tradition has been established as to the column of births, marriages, and deaths. Suddenly a new announcement has appeared in these columns, the announcement of divorce.

This has startled the well-bred American, disgusted the patrician Englishman, and shocked even the *blasé* Frenchman. Hitherto the history of the family has been regarded as sacred. We associate love, death, and marriage with God himself. That divorce should have broken into the column reserved for the divine events in the history of the home is one of the most startling occurrences of the past year. It is as if a thief, entering the house at night, had established his own headquarters in the midst of the home.

Statistics recently published by the National League for the Protection of the Family bring a shock to the average mind. That one marriage in twelve should be dissolved by divorce seems too high a proportion; that in recent years the rate of divorce should have increased more than three times as rapidly as the rate of population—and this in spite of the fact that legislation during the last twenty years has been towards restriction—is alarming.

Recently an article appeared in one of our daily papers in which a statistician in charge of the study of the causes of divorce has given the results of a systematic and thorough investigation, carried on for the most part by women. He reports nearly two-thirds of the cases as being brought on the ground of desertion, and the investigators reported that the conditions in the homes represented were such that the men were justified in the desertion, the wives being absolutely incompetent to care for a home properly.

Two-thirds of the actions for divorce are said to have been brought by women. One cannot help wondering if the ideal of womanhood is not falling since such a condition is possible. Of course, if the ground for these actions was always the Bible standard, or even allowing cruelty and non-support to be a just basis, criticism might be silenced and sympathy aroused. Unfortunately, this is not true. The report goes on to state: "A large part of our divorces are not due to any real effort at attaining the higher ideal of life, as is sometimes assumed, but simply the yielding of the weak and unintelligent to the temptations that come of the hardships of life, or the positive purpose to seek selfish gratification."

The lack of uniformity in divorce laws in different States, the new custom of advertising information concerning divorce laws in papers claiming to be respectable, the ease with which separation can be effected, make it possible for a person whose emotions have been carefully nourished over a slight grievance to obtain relief and alimony with little trouble. The necessary residence for a few months in one of these States of easy morals takes away the unpleasantness of enduring the criticism of public opinion; a little travel at the end of this period while society is discussing the changed conditions, and the divorcée returns to her former circle as if nothing had happened. In the modern family where there are no children the event is a mere ripple on the surface of the life-stream, hardly affecting the general current. The fact that so many modern families consist only of husband and wife has a very vital relation to the increase of divorce.

This is an article concerning women. It is intended to treat only some of the causes for divorce. It is not the intention to assert that men never bring action for divorce, nor that they have not their full share of responsibility and blame. The most difficult thing about any moral problem is that the fault is rarely on one side. The more even the causes for disagreement, the more difficult the problem of adjustment becomes. We have not yet reached the stage of independence and isolation which makes either sex alone

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responsible. The home, however, is the peculiar province of woman. While she may not always be able to control her circumstances, it is very unusual for conditions to be so fixed and unchangeable that she may not modify them to the point of endurance; and for the sake of society and the State a very great amount of personal suffering should be endured before a woman decides upon the extreme measure of dissolving the marriage tie. Therefore the question arises, Are women justified in resorting so frequently to this final resource? Are they really "playing the game" fairly? Are they fulfilling the requirements of the contract into which they have entered? Back of every divorce there lies a tragedy. The tragedy may not be comprehended by those enacting the leading parts, but where there is not the personal suffering in the individual case there is an egotism and indifference to public welfare which are scarcely less than tragical when the effect on general conditions is considered.

It is one of the traits of human nature, male and female, that too much prosperity is attended by evil results. The antidote is responsibility. The conditions surrounding American women in cities are at present not well balanced. Prosperity has increased very rapidly, without a proportionate increase of responsibility. Almost every new invention has made manual work for women less necessary. Sewing, cooking, cleaning, the construction of the house, the supersedence of the house by the apartment, the provision for education by the kindergarten for the small child and the higher schools for girls, all have made the imperative work of the housekeeper and the mother less and less.

There are several results directly traceable to the change in conditions. Nerve diseases are more and more common among women, due largely to the fact that the balance has been disturbed between the development of the body by the most wholesome of all exercise—housework—and the demand upon nerve and brain which is very great in our present complex style of living. At the same time housekeeping has become complicated because it is possible to maintain a more elaborate style of living without the personal labor of the housekeeper, but with a greater expenditure of money and a larger control of efficient service. These changes have been coming about for more than a generation. The results are now clearly manifest and are undoubtedly closely related to the prevalence of divorce.

Let us consider some of the conditions common in the American home and the preparation which the young home-maker has received for her very high and responsible position. Let us consider first the girls brought up in homes of affluence, not necessarily of great wealth, but accustomed to a style of living which is entirely beyond the income of the young husband in ordinary circumstances. It is perfectly possible for a girl habituated all her life to look upon luxuries as necessities to consider herself, after a few months of unsuccessful striving to make ends meet, as ill treated, and to look upon her husband as a business failure. Consciously or unconsciously she will spur him on until he falls, if not under the hand of a merciful Providence, under the stress of temptation. In either case she is sympathized with as a suffering victim, though she may have been the direct cause of her own catastrophe. If he resist temptation and struggle on, it is too frequently with the added burden of distrust, aversion, and finally divorce. This is not a sketch of the imagination. It is the record of observation.

If the girl is willing to adapt herself to the new conditions and enters into the partnership with all the more zest because there is something for her to achieve, she wishes to show her ability to master a difficult situation. But the increase of luxury is continually quickening the pace, and the contrast between the wealthy home and the average is constantly becoming more marked. Just as the young husband finds competition in business keen, so the young wife finds her standard set higher and higher. The temptation to greater expense than can be afforded is very great, the temptation to a better style of service than she is able to maintain is equally great. The condition of neither is sedative to nerves, and incompatibility of temper is a frequent ground for divorce.

And yet, with the increase in the diffi-

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culty of the housekeeper's task, the preparation of our girls for home-making has declined. When higher education for women was introduced, and was a rarity, the part until then neglected was too highly rated and the pendulum swung out too far. The study of books was made paramount. Time must not be wasted in household duties, but spent wholly on the subjects laid down in the curriculum, which did not include the very important art of home-making. During all the formative years girls have devoted themselves to books until graduation. Then comes a time usually given up to social engagements and to idleness.

This is the time when the technical education in home-making should follow. There is a natural aversion to this—the result of years of training in another line—and that is the weak point in our present system. There should be a leading up to such training, an expectation of it, just as our boys look forward to a special training in law, medicine, or engineering before they take up serious work. In no form of business does a young man expect to begin at the head of an establishment. He knows he must begin at the bottom, and go through all the stages before he is qualified to become its head. Yet a girl is expected to assume the charge of a most varied, a most complicated, most delicate line of business with little or no preparation, and is severely censured if she is not successful. And that in spite of the fact that her success or failure does not affect herself alone, nor does it affect outward circumstances only. On it depend the health, the comfort, and the efficiency of her husband and her children. Is it fair to put our daughters to such a test, and that, too, at a time when motherhood, a new and exhausting demand upon physical strength, is usually an accompaniment? The girl should have received a training which assures the success of her housekeeping, her home-making, before she assumes the duties and responsibilities of wifehood and motherhood. Because so few girls have been given such training, because on so many come all these new demands at the same time, there are inevitable failures. Among the poorer classes intemperance is the common result; a little higher in the social scale, incompatibility and divorce. Even when the girl is naturally competent and anxious to do her part, the strain is frequently too great for her strength, and a period of ill health in early married life is very general. It is the price paid for neglect of preparation. The hope for the girl of the present is the popularity of athletics. This may tide many young mothers through the difficulty, but a surer solution of the problem is a competent training for the work which every woman who aspires to the position of home-keeper should fit herself to do.

The increase in luxury and the change in household conditions have made possible a kind of woman who is very much in evidence in the city. She is the idle woman. She may—usually does—consider herself busy; she is "rushed," driven, by social engagements. She reminds one of a wheel temporarily disconnected from a machine, which whirls around and around more rapidly than the working machinery, but nothing happens except the whirling. She has no substance of character. She is self-centered, and sees in her freedom from responsibility and care only the leisure to entertain herself and have a good time. She rarely thinks of herself as a part of the State except to demand its protection and its privileges. It does not occur to her that every individual man or woman who comes into this world—unless he is defective—ought at least to carry his own weight. Because all of us in childhood and old age and in times of illness are incapable of this, in full power and strength we should do much more. Otherwise we are paupers. We may be what some one has called paupers patrician or paupers plebeian, but the adjective matters little. One sometimes wonders what would be the condition if, as a result of the agitation for suffrage and equal pay for equal work, there should come a time when there should be a just valuation of service rendered and every one should receive his true apportionment for value received. There would be a terrible revelation to some apparently important people and a great surprise to the husbands and friends of others.

The ordinary characteristic of the busy-idle woman is an exaggerated idea of her

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own importance. If one's own self fills the whole horizon, there is not much room for other people and other things. Perhaps among this type of woman is to be found the most frequent petitioner for divorce. Feelings and emotions have reached the supersensitive state. A word of criticism, the mere lack of sympathy on the part of a sympathy-exhausted husband, are sufficient occasion for the beginning of a grievance whose growth and development are like the grain of mustard-seed which became a tree, only the birds which come to lodge in its branches are not the creatures of light and song, but birds of prey, fattening upon dead ambitions and strangled aspirations.

American women have been reared upon a false conception. The chivalry of our men, the brilliant conversation of our women, and the independence of our girls are the first subjects to be commented upon by foreigners. The American girl has been set up on a pedestal and treated as if she were a superior sort of being, something outside of the laws and experiences of common life, until she has come to believe it is true. She is pretty and attractive and sweet, as a usual thing, but so are German girls and English girls and girls of every nationality. She may be more talkative and self-assertive, but it is a question whether she is better prepared for real work in the world, for the making and maintaining of a home, or, failing that, for the support of herself or those who may be dependent upon her. It is exceedingly doubtful. The German and English women of the same class are far better housekeepers than we, the French are far better business women, and as for art, we have not yet produced an Angelica Kauffmann, a Vigée-Lebrun, a Rosa Bonheur. In literature we have had no Mme. de Staël nor Mme. de Sévigné, no George Sand nor George Eliot, no Elizabeth Browning, not even a Jane Austen or a Charlotte Brontë, hardly a Mrs. Humphry Ward. We have had no such actresses as Rachel, Siddons, or Bernhardt. We import most of our prima donnas and our gowns. Our own tailors and the Parisians themselves tell us there are no better-dressed women in the world than in New York—but men "build" the gowns! In business we have had no such financial success as the Bon Marché, conducted by Mme. Boucicault. Even in domestic service we seek a maid of any nationality rather than an American. Just where the superiority of the American woman really lies it is hard to say.

This is by no means saying that American women have not ability and may not in time accomplish any or all of such achievements; but we have assumed superiority too soon, and it has been an injury. The habit of such assumption has blinded many a woman to her real position, to her real value, and taken away all incentive for the accomplishment of things really worth while. We are too easily content with work of a superficial character, and with calling by the name work that which is the merest pretense.

When all is said, the bottom cause of the restlessness of American women is the craving for appreciation. Women dislike housework not so much because they are indolent and selfish as because it has been so unjustly belittled. American women can be as good housekeepers as the German and English, and as good business women as the French. People are just people, the world over. But with all our wonted boast of the chivalry of our men, it has been a "let alone" policy which has been generally adopted. Men pay court to the fairest of the fair. They offer homage and flattery to the brilliant talker and the woman who is well gowned. The plain, substantial, every-day home-maker is left in the background, hurt and indignant. Being left to her own sweet will, she strives to become brilliant or well dressed. The German or Englishman may conceal "the iron hand within the glove"—though that notion is fiction rather than fact—but his home is a home, his castle and his haven, and its keeping is worth while. Of the French home possibly the less said the better, but the wife, even if she be plain and unattractive (a Frenchman would never admit that a woman could be either), is his partner. There is a spirit of *camaraderie* which may not make a woman better, but is more satisfying.

The American man is a hustler. He is perfectly willing that a woman should have anything she wants, and he strains himself

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to the last point of endurance to provide her with luxuries, but he is too busy to give her what she most wants—his companionship.

The Englishman strolls deliberately to business at ten o'clock, and is through in time for afternoon tea. The Frenchman has leisure to sip his wine and smoke his cigarette at an outdoor café. Every one who has seen a Frenchman with his family in the Bois de Boulogne on a holiday or a Sunday afternoon is impressed with the keen relish with which he shares their simplest amusements. The American is too busy for family life. A hasty breakfast bolted behind the morning paper, a rush for the office, a late return for the evening dinner, leave him too weary and exhausted to enter or create another atmosphere. Husband and wife take their ways separately. If the ways remain parallel, the man becomes more and more a machine. The wife, heart-hungry, absorbs herself with charity, club life, or society, according to her disposition. If she is weak and meets temptation, a tragedy ensues. If she is strong and becomes bitter, there may also be a tragedy. The average woman still sees something fine and noble in her old ideal and clings to him, hoping that some day he will cease giving her things and give himself.

In the meanwhile the State is losing its best service, the united effort of men and women; the home its best atmosphere, a quiet peace and harmony; men and women their greatest happiness, the interchange of perfect confidence and trust.

The present agitation concerning the rights of woman, whether or not it results in giving her suffrage, should at least do this: it should clarify the mind of woman so that she may see her own position clearly. We are having a most beautiful opportunity to see ourselves as others see us, and it goes without saying that the American woman has enough intelligence, enough pride, enough common sense, to set herself to remedy the faults which these mirrors reveal to her.

The factory and shop girl may not have the chance to fit themselves properly to become home-makers, but if they see that incompetency is looked upon with disfavor and divorce with disgust by the well-to-do, and that the daughters of men of independent fortunes seriously prepare themselves for the dignity of home-making, they will at least make an effort to do their best, and, if failure is inevitable, they may be slower to fly to the divorce court for relief and the freedom to try another chance.

The problem for the factory and shop girl who wish to marry but cannot afford to give up their positions is difficult but not impossible of solution, and it would be well worth the expenditure of municipal funds to assure it. Until this can be provided for in a thorough and universal way it is one of the most needed and most profitable forms of charity. The work begun in such institutions as Pratt Institute and the Teachers College and other schools of domestic science should be extended and brought within the reach of girls and young housekeepers who can pay little tuition and whose attendance must be in the evening. These things should become popular as well among the well-to-do. There should be schools where young women can be taught to cook, to sew, and to *spend;* schools well taught, well supported, and made popular by the women of the classes who have set the example in extravagance and in the wasting of time.

The evils of social wrong-doing and of divorce are first and most widely seen among the lower classes; but the remedy for such evils must be begun by people of thought and influence. Home is too sacred and precious a thing to be allowed carelessly to slip out of the lives of the next generation. Home-keeping is too valuable a factor in the welfare of the State to be permitted to remain in the state of negligence and half-contempt to which it is rapidly sinking. More than fifty years ago Mr. Gladstone wrote: "We do not seem to know by what great providence of God, by what vigilance, labor, and courage of men, the institution of marriage has been wrought up in this fallen and disordered world to the state of strictness in which we now see it, and which renders it the most potent instrument by far among all laws and institutions both in mitigating the principle of personal selfishness and in sustaining and consolidating the fabric of society."

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THE SPIRIT OF DEMOCRACY

BY LYMAN ABBOTT

A SERIES OF ARTICLES IN WHICH THE AUTHOR CONSIDERS THE EFFECT OF DEMOCRACY IN THE FAMILY, IN EDUCATION, IN INDUSTRY, AND IN GOVERNMENT[1]

FIFTH PAPER

IN EDUCATION—THE EVOLUTION OF EDUCATION

THERE are two conceptions of education put in sharp contrast by two interesting fables, similar in form, contrasted in the lessons which they teach—the fable of the colts, by Pestalozzi; the fable of the dogs, by Rousseau.

The Two Colts. Two colts as like as two eggs fell into different hands. One was bought by a peasant whose only thought was to harness it to his plow as soon as possible; this one turned out a bad horse. The other fell to the lot of a man who by looking after it well and training it carefully made a noble steed of it, strong and mettlesome. Fathers and mothers, if your children's faculties are not carefully trained and directed right, they will become not only useless, but hurtful; and the greater the faculties, the greater the danger.

The Two Dogs. Just look at those two dogs; they are of the same litter, they have been brought up and treated precisely alike, they have never been separated; and yet one of them is sharp, lively, affectionate, and very intelligent; the other is dull, lumpish, surly, and nobody could ever teach him anything. Simply a difference of temperament has produced in them a difference of character, just as a simple difference of our interior organization produces in us a difference of mind.

To Pestalozzi the mind of a child is like the plastic clay which the teacher fashions; to Rousseau, like the stone image—the teacher can only polish it a little. To Pestalozzi education is the whole process of human development; to Rousseau nature is the mother of us all, and the less we interfere with her processes the better. Pestalozzi would have education begin at the cradle; Rousseau would have what education there is begin at twelve years of age.

I hold with Pestalozzi that education fashions and shapes the growing child; it cannot begin too soon. Education is simply directed growth, and the education should begin when the growth begins. The mind of a child is like a garden bed. There are in it seeds of flowers and seeds of weeds. The teacher cannot change the weeds to flowers, but the teacher can eradicate the weeds and develop the flowers. This is education. The teacher puts the child on a path and knows not where it will lead; only this, that the path leads up into the clouds or down into a dark and bottomless abyss.

The weakest of all animals is the infant, knowing nothing, able to do nothing, absolutely dependent for his very existence on the nursing mother. At the other extreme of life, developed by the processes of a life education, stands Gladstone shaping the destinies of the nation, or Browning singing songs the ages will listen to, or Edison gathering the lightning and making it light our houses and run our trolley cars. The difference between this little, insignificant, useless creature in the cradle and this great statesman, this great poet, this great inventor, is education.

There seems to me nothing so great as this work of a teacher, whether we call this teacher mother, or father, or instructor, or pastor. To take a character and mold and make it what the builder will—there is nothing greater than that. It is a great thing to paint a wonderful portrait that, when she whom I loved is gone, will speak to me with eloquent lips and look at me with gleaming eyes; but it is a greater thing to make the character of which that is but a portrait. It is a great thing to be a poet and portray with burning words a living citizen; but it is a greater thing to create the living citizen. It is a great thing to be a great statesman, holding the helm of State and guiding it on its perplexed course; but it is a greater thing to make the statesman, and the nation which he is guiding. Says Erasmus:

Would it not be a horror to look upon a human soul clad in the form of a beast,

[1] These articles are based on and in part condensed from a series of lectures on "The Spirit of Democracy" delivered by the author on consecutive Sunday afternoons before the Brooklyn (New York) Institute in January and February, 1910.

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as Circe is fabled to have done by her spells? But is it not worse that a father should see his own image slowly but surely becoming the dwelling-place of a brute's nature? It is said a bear's cub is at birth but an ill-formed lump which by a long process of licking is brought into shape. Nature, in giving you a son, presents you, let us say, a rude, unformed creature, which it is your part to fashion so that it may become indeed a man. If this fashioning be neglected, you have but an animal still; if it be contrived earnestly and wisely, you have, I had almost said, what may prove a being not far from a God.

If it is a great work for mothers to do this for a few children, or teachers to do this for a few more children, what a wonderful work it is for a Nation to do this for itself!

And that is what the American Nation is doing. We are not only a self-governing people, we are what is far more important, a self-educating people. We are dependent for our education, not upon a few learned or a few wise men, save as we select the learned and the wise; we are dependent on ourselves. We fashion our schools, build our school-houses, select our curriculum, determine our educative processes. A Nation of eighty millions of people is educating itself. What kind of education are we giving ourselves? What is the result of our self-development? An orator, boasting of his abilities in a public speech, said, "Fellow-citizens, I am glad to say I am a self-made man;" an auditor in the distance called out, "You have taken off from your Creator a very heavy responsibility." We are a self-made Nation. What kind of a Nation are we making?

How came we to enter on this so audacious experiment? To answer that question, we must trace rapidly, and far too briefly, the history of the growth of education.

Professor Dicey says that not until 1832 did England recognize any national responsibility for education or even impose any legal obligation upon parents to educate their own children. 1832! This progressive Anglo-Saxon race, to which many of us are proud to belong, is, then, from twenty-five hundred to three thousand years behind the Hebrew race; for the Hebrew Commonwealth enacted somewhere between six hundred and a thousand years before Christ (scholars differ as to the date, and it is not necessary to discuss the question here) a law which required parents to teach their children. Whether that law was enforced by legal penalties I do not know, but it was law; and that law further provided for certain great gatherings from time to time, like our camp-meetings or our Chautauqua Assemblies, at which the professional teachers of the nation should come, and from platforms and pulpits should teach the men and the women and the children. For woman's education does not date from the beginning of the nineteenth century, but from a thousand years before Christ. And the law, a little later, provided for itinerant teachers who should go from village to village, teaching the people by a kind of itinerant schoolmastership.

Out of this primitive system of education—very primitive it certainly was, but adapted to a primitive condition—there had grown by the time of Christ a Jewish system under which there was a synagogue school connected with every synagogue, and a university of considerable proportions connected with the great Temple at Jerusalem. It was to that university at the Temple at Jerusalem that Jesus was drawn when he was a boy only twelve years of age, not to teach the doctors, but to learn from the rabbis what he could not learn from the less instructed rabbi of the synagogue in his village home. Up to this time there had been nowhere else in the world, except possibly China, any system of education provided by either State or Church. There were schools in Greece and later in Rome, and the philosophers of Greece and Rome urged on parents the duty of education; and there were well-educated men in Greece and in Rome. But the State as a State—with the possible exception of Sparta for a few short years—and the pagan Church as a Church made no provision for popular education. The schools were subsidiary to the home; they were aids to the parents. If the parents had the inclination and the means, they sent their children to school or had teachers to teach them at home; if the parents lacked either the inclination or the means, the children were left to grow up untaught;

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and, in point of fact, in ancient Rome the great majority of the children were so left to grow up untaught.

The Hebrew religion, transformed, developed—to use Jesus' own words, fulfilled—passed over into Europe, and carried with it the synagogue school, transformed into a Christian school. It is difficult for us to state exactly what happened in the first two or three centuries of the Christian era; history, if not absolutely silent, speaks in ambiguous terms. But we know that at the close of the third century there were Christian schools connected with most of the Christian churches. By the sixth century a decree issued by one of the great Councils called upon the Church to establish such schools in connection with every church; and from the sixth century down to the sixteenth there followed decree after decree and edict after edict, from synod, from council, and from Popes, urging on the Church the duty of providing education for the people by the establishment of parochial schools for the primary work, and of cathedral schools for the higher work. The great universities of to-day are the children of these early Church schools. Cambridge and Oxford, for example, are the outgrowth of schools in the same places, and to a considerable extent in the same buildings, originally established and maintained by the Roman Catholic Church.

At the beginning of the sixteenth century was born the great democratic movement. It had two aspects: the Renaissance, with its home in Italy; the Reformation, with its home in Germany. And with this birth of the democratic spirit there came a new conception of education. This was partly a new conception of its breadth and extent, but it was largely a new conception of the instrument by which it should be carried on. Both Erasmus, the prophet of the Renaissance, and Luther, the prophet of the Reformation, insisted upon schools organized, supported, and governed by the State. They were not satisfied to leave education in the hands of the parents or in the hands of the Church; they demanded that the State should undertake the work of popular education; that it should become a national obligation. It is interesting to find in the writings of Erasmus on education the same objections reported which are repeated to-day in the twentieth century, met by the same arguments by which they are met to-day.

"You say," says Erasmus, "that you have no time to educate your children. If you will give up some of your foolish pleasures, if you will give up some of your useless avocations, and especially if you will devote less time to your senseless social functions, you will have time enough to educate your children." "You have no money. No money! Why, you pay less for your teachers than you pay for your cook." I believe that is still sometimes true in New York City. "You mothers are more particular to dress your children than to educate them. You are anxious for their hats and their dresses that they should appear well. If you must gratify your vanity by dressing somebody, buy a monkey and dress him." "You say that education impairs the health. I should certainly always advise moderation in the amount of mental exertion demanded, but I have little patience with critics who only become anxious about the youthful constitution when education is mooted, but who are indifferent to the far more certain risks of overfeeding, late hours, and unsuitable dressing in the classes about whom I am here concerned."

That would not be a bad lesson in some homes in America. Erasmus laid stress on the taking up of education by the State. He was more radical than the most radical of advocates of State education to-day. Secular education, or none at all, was his cry. Luther spoke on this subject with even greater forcefulness:

"Since we are all required, and especially the magistrates, above all other things to educate the youth who are born and are growing up among us, and to train them up in the way of virtue, it is needful that we have schools, preachers, and pastors. If the parents will not reform, they must go their way to ruin; but if the young are neglected and left without education, it is the fault of the State, and the effect will be that the country will swarm with vile and lawless people, so that our safety, no less than the command of God, requireth us to see and ward off this evil." He maintains in this letter that government "as the natural guardian of the young has a right to compel the people to support the schools." "What is necessary to the well-being of a State, that should be supplied by those who enjoy the privileges of such State."

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Since the sixteenth century the public school, that is, the school supported, maintained, and under the government of the political organization, has been the constant companion and the true foundation of every democratic State. The public schools of Germany date from the days of Luther. Their excellence is due in part to the fact that they have been under a process of harmonious development for more than three centuries. The public schools passed gradually over into other countries, which gradually became democratic. It was not until 1870 that the State made any provision for public education in England. It was not until 1881 that the State undertook compulsory education in France.

The Puritans brought their public system of education with them as the foundation of their theocracy. It extended, after the Civil War, into the South, and has now gone wherever the American flag has gone. One of the most inspiring surprises which the visitor to Porto Rico sees to-day as he travels over that island is the rural school-house in every village, and oftentimes in spots remote from any town. In Porto Rico,[1] in Hawaii, in the Philippines, the public school—that is, the school supported and carried on and maintained by the State—has followed, accompanied, been the foundation of the democratic movement. I sat one night recently by the side of Baron Kikuchi, the head of the Educational Department of Japan, and he told me that in that country ninety-eight per cent of the children were in the public school. I said to him, "You are in advance of America." I wonder how long it will be before we catch up.

Thus there have developed from very primitive beginnings three instruments of education—the Home, the Church, and the State. How the education should be divided between these three is a matter of hot debate. In France the Government has recently prohibited the Church from doing any teaching. In Germany the State does the teaching, but in some parts of the Empire the Church comes in after hours to add religious instruction. In England the Church and State combine to render instruction, the Church carrying on some schools, the State others. In America the State carries on the schools, but the Church is perfectly free to establish and maintain schools by its own action and under its own direction, if it sees fit to do so.

I believe that these three organizations, the Home, the Church, and the School, should combine in education. How they should combine, and what education they should furnish, I shall consider in a succeeding article.

CITY LIFE IN FRANCE

BY HARVEY N. SHEPARD

THE activities of the cities of Europe are many, both in number and in kind, and are full of interest and instruction. In the Continental conception of city government there are no limits to its functions. The municipal codes are based upon the principle that cities may do, not what is expressly permitted, as in the United States, but what is not prohibited by law. It is their business to promote the welfare of their citizens, and therefore they are far more positive factors in the life of the people than are our cities. They work out with freedom their own problems for their own welfare.

The French Code opens with the broad statement that "the council regulates by its deliberations the affairs of the commune." In 1879 the city of Liége bought an island in the river, laid out fine streets, and sold building sites. Within two years the island was occupied by attractive residences, and the city's investment was very lucrative. Any city may establish gas

[1] The latest statistics available at this writing show in Porto Rico: Schools, 2,040; scholars, 87,236; teachers, 1,736. And when our troops landed in Porto Rico, there were no schools outside a few of the larger towns, and not a school building in the island which had been erected for that purpose.

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works or operate street railways, though in the Code no special mention is made of any such powers. The gas supply, however, and also electric lighting and the operation of the street railways, have been left in private hands, though under minute restrictions and with full return to the communes for the privileges granted. Paris, in its dealing with the lighting companies, always has guarded the interests of the city and of its citizens. It has learned that there can be no competition between such companies in the same area, and that it is futile to attempt to regulate by competition a business which is monopolistic in its nature. The gas company pays the city two hundred thousand francs each year for the right to put its pipes under the sidewalks; the streets and public buildings are lighted at cost, and twenty million francs a year, in addition, is paid for the franchise. There are no obstructive wires in the streets. Most American cities would congratulate themselves on having made an extraordinary bargain if, in return for the privileges they accord the gas companies, they should have the streets and public buildings lighted at cost. But Paris obtains that concession and twenty million francs a year in addition to it. The telephone system of Paris is operated by the national Government in connection with its Post-Office, and, while it pays nothing for its telegraph wires and pneumatic tubes, it pays liberally for its telephone wires. Numerous private telegraph and telephone wires also pay for their privileges, and from these sources, together with the payments from the compressed air company, the municipal treasury is in receipt of a revenue approaching a million francs. This is in addition to the payments from the gas and electric light companies for their privileges under the sidewalks. In the past ten years Paris also has received over sixty million francs as rentals and license fees from companies and individuals using the streets for passenger transportation. From the concessions in the market-places the city has an income yearly of more than eight million francs.

City bath establishments are not frequent in France, though Paris is ahead of London in school baths. Throughout France school-books and the various appliances needful in schools are supplied by the communes gratuitously. In Marseilles, Lyons, and other large cities warm meals are supplied from school restaurants, shoes and clothes are given to the needy, and holiday and vacation trips are provided. In Roubaix school restaurants are open every school day of the year. Since 1892 they have served over 3,000,000 meals: soup, meat with vegetables, bread, and a glass of beer. A uniform ticket system is used in such a way that the children themselves cannot recognize any distinction between those who are fed gratuitously and those who pay. The bureau for clothing school children has distributed 160,000 pieces of clothing: trousers, shirts, dresses, caps, stockings, and shoes. The city sends to the seaside during the summer from its schools the children who are feeble. These children remain a month, and their only duty while there is to take deep breaths of fresh air and play in the sunlight. Every year the City Council of Paris votes a handsome sum of money to pay for the management of school vacation trips into the country, and an important system of school camps and colonies has been established for the children of the working people.

Maritime and river cities usually own their docks, quays, and piers, which combine commercial utility with artistic beauty. In Havre, for instance, the quays are not only equipped for commercial purposes but are popular recreation centers, readily accessible, and at night brilliantly illuminated, a source of civic pride and a powerful stimulus to civic patriotism. The condition of our water fronts as compared with those of the French cities is humiliating. With rare exceptions we have permitted selfish interests to destroy their natural beauty and to make them less attractive than any other portions of the city. So great are the natural beauties of the superb harbors of New York and Boston that they ought to outrank all the cities of the Old World. Compare also what Paris has made of its river front with what Philadelphia has done.

Public pawnshops are a municipal institution throughout France. Their great advantage to the poor is the low rate of interest upon small loans—six per cent a year upon loans as small as sixty cents.

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Even more universal are the municipal savings banks, which are found in every important town without exception.

As long ago as 1875 the savings bank feature was introduced into the elementary schools of Paris; and while the sums which children at school can deposit are small and the system is carried on for the educational value it possesses, nevertheless they now amount to one hundred and fifty thousand francs a year, and from 1875 to 1893 the children's deposits were two million francs.

The child and its welfare form the special care of the French cities. Numerous day nurseries in the heart of the populous districts receive children without any charge.

A particularly attractive and humane experiment, begun in 1889, has proved a great success—the system of guardians for small children whose parents are employed away from home during the day. The pupils are released from school at four, while their parents do not return from work for two hours or more. Such children are kept in custody by some one connected with their school, are allowed to play under safe conditions, and are sent home at the proper hour. In some instances the guardians assume charge of such children in the morning as well as at night; and they always are responsible for their safe-keeping and happiness on each Thursday holiday.

Some French cities have established disinfecting plants, bakeries, and kitchens. In the bakeries bread is baked for the poor, which is distributed freely at their homes, while the kitchens provide wholesome food at the lowest prices.

In the case of every unfortunate child Paris aims to be very much more than a grudging stepfather. Besides thousands placed in industrial schools and otherwise provided for, many thousands more are every year sent to country homes, where the authorities maintain a general watch over them. Every year the Paris officials have on their active lists some thirty thousand children distributed among the farmers.

The city of Roubaix pays a pension to the aged poor of either sex living at home; provides cottages for widows with little children to care for, maintains a bureau for free legal advice, and has built a hospital for the sick.

Very useful also is the service of night medical and surgical relief, organized in several cities and responding each year to an increasing demand. Free employment offices are maintained in the town halls of the *arrondissements* of Paris, and the Council votes a sum each year for their support. Private citizens who have the time and means and who are generously disposed toward the workingmen of their neighborhoods give much unpaid service to the management of these local labor exchanges. The results are beneficent in various ways. As a crowning evidence of its devotion to the cause of labor the Paris Council in 1886 established a great Central Labor Exchange. This institution was completed and opened in 1892, about two million francs having been expended upon it. It became at once the headquarters of all the trade unions and labor bodies in Paris, not less than eighty-two trades being represented through the appointed agents of their societies. The Council votes fifty thousand francs a year toward the maintenance of the institution, and it is in many ways promotive of the well-being of Parisian artisans, and of the industrial and commercial progress of the city.

The theaters generally are assisted and frequently are owned by the city. In Lille the city receives four hundred free seats at each performance of all the theaters, which are distributed among the workingmen.

Paris is the pioneer city of modern times. Whether one goes to Belgium and Scandinavia, to Switzerland and Italy, or to Germany and Austria-Hungary, he finds evidences on all hands of the abounding influence of Paris upon the outward forms of their cities. Brussels, Berlin, St. Petersburg, Dresden, Vienna, Budapest, and even Rome itself, would not be to-day what they are without the example of Paris. It was the first to conceive the ideas of symmetry and spaciousness, of order and convenience, and of wholesomeness and cleanliness. Mediæval Paris was a labyrinthine tangle of narrow, dark, and foul passageways and alleys. The original Paris, ancient Lutetia, was nothing more than the island in the Seine upon

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which the Cathedral of Notre Dame stands; it contained at the period of the Revolution a great number of small streets, fifteen or twenty churches, and a population of twenty thousand or more. Those who visit it to-day find the island given over to a few great public buildings: the courts, an immense hospital, the Prefecture of Police, the Tribunal of Commerce, and two or three other public establishments. It is flanked by broad and smooth stone quays, is symmetrically laid out with open squares and a few spacious streets, and not more than perhaps one-tenth of its area is occupied by private buildings. Thousands of small houses were cleared away, and the modern island, with the restored cathedral, the splendid quays, the massive public edifices, the new bridges, and the flower market, made its appearance.

Paris has accepted unflinchingly the doctrine that smooth and clean highways are a wise investment, and that so long as the work is done in a thorough and scientific manner, with an honest and skillful application of means to ends, the result is worth having, regardless of cost. The expense of maintaining, cleaning, and sprinkling the streets is greater than in any other European city; but the sort of pre-eminence that such a street service helps to secure is profitable in a hundred indirect ways.

Paris has by far the richest park equipment of any city in the world. The area of parks within an afternoon's excursion is 20,000 acres, while farther away are more extensive public grounds, such as Versailles and Fontainebleau. It is impossible to estimate the profits which Paris derives annually from its parks, boulevards, and public buildings. Bankers have estimated that Americans spend upwards of $500,000,000 annually in foreign countries, and it is safe to say that Paris receives at least one-fifth of this vast sum, the profits from which are as great as are the profits from pork to Chicago, shoes to St. Louis, and beer to Milwaukee.

The experience of Paris ought to convince the most skeptical that there is no modern community of civilized men which cannot afford to provide the most perfect public appointments that technical and scientific knowledge have discovered: well-made and clean streets, good water, proper drainage, convenient transit facilities, complete schools, and thorough sanitary organizations. No city should think itself rich enough to prosper without them, and no city is so poor that it cannot afford them.

The municipal councils have recognized the necessity of regular physical culture as well as of outdoor sport and recreation; and they have made the gymnasium, under professional instruction, a general feature of the schools. Directors of sports are employed, and on holidays, in the parks and playgrounds, the young are taught outdoor games and exercises which only a few years ago they knew little about. Manual training, also, in the use of common tools has been recognized for its educational value and for its practical bearings; and in Paris there are nearly one hundred and fifty workshops connected with the boys' elementary schools in which regular instruction is given. Meanwhile the girls receive corresponding instruction in needlework and the domestic arts.

In few directions has Paris been more active during the past decade than in the promotion of libraries—convenient small libraries with reading-rooms scattered throughout the city. In many industrial neighborhoods there have been opened special workingmen's libraries of industrial art. Lecture courses are provided in connection with these libraries, and costly works are loaned to the artisans for home study. The experiment is accounted a most satisfactory one in its results. The schools are supplied with their own libraries, of which use is made by the parents as well as by the scholars. In every school building there is a collection of the reference books which teachers need; then a second collection of reference books for pupils; and a third collection of carefully chosen books to be lent to the pupils for home reading.

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THE LUCKY-BUG

BY E. L. PEARSON

HE darted swiftly about on the water, making two little ripples that broadened to the right and left behind him. His neat, dark, gentleman-like coat was slightly glossy, catching the sunshine in one tiny bright spot on his back. Ten or a dozen inches he would slide in one direction, looking always like the tip of an arrow-head whose sides were formed by the ripples he made. Then he would shoot off abruptly at right angles, halt again, and change his course once more. There was no method in his actions; no vulgar pursuit of food. The swallows, who in ceaseless parabolas soared, swept, and fluttered over that end of the pond, had a very practical purpose, however charming their flight might appear. They were gathering a comfortable meal of gnats and mosquitoes. But the Lucky-bug, so far as I could see, was in it merely for the fun of the thing. Why toil and fuss about breakfast on a fine morning of early summer? Much pleasanter to skim over the water, mindful only of the waving branches of the great elms overhead and the grassy bankings with their golden dandelion buttons.

That was his philosophy, I thought, and I sympathized with it. But I realized that it was not for me. The grinding cares of life oppressed me, and left no time for idle amusement. My needs had driven me forth with a glass fruit-jar filled with water, and I had designs against the liberty of that Lucky-bug. He might continue his antics, but it must be in the narrow, circumscribed limits of the fruit-jar; not on the surface of the frog-pond.

Fortune had, of late, departed from me, and some great stroke was necessary to bring her back. I had sedulously dropped stones down the culvert under the railway track every time I had passed by for three days. Nothing at all had come of it. Yet it is, as every one knows, a very potent charm indeed. To all who doubt I have only to say that Charley Carter, after dropping stones in the culvert three or four times a week for two years, had, one day, *only an hour and a half* after dropping a stone, found eleven cents (two nickels and a copper) down in Market Square. But it did not work with me.

The capture of a Lucky-bug was clearly indicated. It was my only course, if I wished to turn the tide of mischance that had been setting strongly against me since Monday morning, when the cat had made an attempt on the life of my sole surviving goldfish. She had been unsuccessful, I am glad to say, and she now had to disappear over the fence with more than her usual speed whenever I came out of the house. But in her efforts she had dislodged a pail of polliwogs that stood beside the goldfish's residence, and a quart or more of pond-water, with two or three hundred unfortunate polliwogs, had been deposited on my bed. I was not there to distress my eyes with their dying struggles, but the household authorities had made much of the incident, dwelling quite irrelevantly on the state of the bedclothes, rather than the fate of the polliwogs. Consequently I was led to believe that any more polliwogs would be received into the house with a coolness bordering upon absolute inhospitality.

The shocking unreasonableness of this attitude was perfectly plain to me, as I think it will be to any fair-minded person. I pointed out that neither I, nor the goldfish, nor the deceased polliwogs were in any manner to blame. Not the most biased tribunal in the world, save one composed of feminine housekeepers, would ever think of finding guilty any party to the accident except the cat. But did they so much as reprove *her?* Not they. She was a moth of peace, rusting in idleness under the kitchen stove or on the back fence, fat, lazy, and full of sin. Like most of her kind, she tempered a career of sloth with occasional deeds of cruelty and blood by day and with diabolical yells at night. Yet she was maintained, a favored pensioner, in the household, under the superstitious delusion that she caught mice, and she would have gone over to the neighbors any day if it had

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struck her that they were more generous with rations than we were. My estimate of her was formed the night I heard the screams of a nest of young robins in the apple tree, up which she had dragged her fat body, like an overfed snake, bent on slaughter. And nothing in the vast amount of misleading literature lauding her race has ever succeeded in whitewashing the character of the old reprobate.

As there was clearly no justice to be had as concerned the cat *versus* the polliwogs, and as my household was plainly set against them, I went back to school that afternoon in some bitterness of spirit. It was the day of the week when from three until four o'clock we were confronted by the uneasy ghost of Mr. Warren Colburn, who, through the medium of his ingenious book, tormented and harrowed our souls. I had no opinion whatever of Mr. Colburn, nor of mental arithmetic, and I looked with loathing on his precocious feats in that science. A few members of the class pretended to enjoy the hour; I am within bounds when I say that to me it was a season of horror. Perhaps the polliwog episode had put me in a mood more than usually numb toward the charms of arithmetic; but, whatever it was, it resulted in my remaining half an hour longer than the others in the unrelenting company of Miss Appleton, the teacher, and Mr. Colburn. To do this when Ed Mason, with a new fish-pole, was waiting outside, partook of the nature of tragedy.

Beyond argument, I had somehow got into disgrace with fortune and men's eyes. To be sure, school came to an end on Wednesday, so I was for the next eight or nine weeks safe from the old arithmetician and from his priestess Miss Appleton. But on Tuesday I broke the large blade of my jack-knife, and on Wednesday fell in with three boys from the parochial school, who still recalled with animosity their captivity in Peter Bailey's stable when Peter and others of the neighborhood, including myself, had established a police station there. It was three against one, and I emerged from the encounter with very little glory, a good deal of dust on my clothes, and two or three rather lame spots on my person. At this rate, unless the gods were somehow propitiated, it seemed unlikely that I should survive until the end of the week.

Billy Mason, an unquestioned authority in all such matters, advised the capture of a Lucky-bug. That was his recipe, delivered when the shades of Wednesday evening were drawing in. And now behold me, in the bright sunlight of Thursday morning, anxiously following the movements of a large Lucky-bug, who was sliding merrily over the surface of the frog-pond.

That good luck would attend me if I could catch him, I had no manner of doubt. Billy Mason had cited specific instances of the extreme felicity of those who caught and held these small black water-beetles, and Jimmy Toppan reinforced Billy's thesis by relating that it was only four months after *he* had caught a Lucky-bug that his father had bought him a Shetland pony. The possession of a pony was beyond my utmost hopes, but I did pray, at least, that when I had attained a Lucky-bug the misfortunes which had assailed me during the last three days might come to an end. Indeed, at that moment of desperation, fresh from my unhappy meeting with the parochial-school boys, I would have gladly foregone any future pony for the mere privilege of being let alone by whatever malign deity it was that seemed bent on pestering me.

The Lucky-bug sailed warily about, never coming within easy reach. Evidently he had noticed me and my fruit-jar. If I had brought a net, his capture would have been easy, but most of the authorities held that he ought to be seized with the hand. Otherwise, the charm might fail.

I observed him in silence, and at last was glad to see that his motions were bringing him nearer the shore. He darted in and out, but, on the whole, came gradually into reach. I leaned forward over the water, my hand outstretched. Another swift movement brought him nearer me. Evidently he had decided that I was not a hostile object. His trustfulness was going to get him into trouble. Still another slide toward me, and I made a quick grab at him. But he was quicker. He seized a tiny bubble—where he got it I could not see—and

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dived like a flash, carrying the bubble with him. It was evidently his air supply, or else for illuminating purposes—I could not be sure which, but he looked like a diver carrying an electric searchlight. Once he reached the bottom—it was only about six inches distant there at the edge of the pond—he became invisible among the pebbles and bits of wood. I groped about, but could not dislodge him.

So I drew back and waited. In a few moments he came to the surface again, a yard or two to the left. I made ready to snatch at him once more, but he was plainly cautious now, for he went below with his bubble before I had any chance of getting him. I decided to look for another Lucky-bug with less suspicion in his character, and I set out to stroll around the pond. A little farther on I came across a colony of polliwogs. They huddled close to the shore, making the water look like ink. As I came near they all began to wiggle, and two or three parties, each of a thousand or more individuals, stampeded in various directions, like crowds of terrified quotation marks. It would not be many days now before most of them would be transformed into the proud estate of toads. I reflected on the unfair nomenclature that had called that pond after the gay and handsome frog when it was almost exclusively occupied by that more sedate and useful citizen, the toad. That was the way of the world as it seemed to me on that gloomy morning. The frog had a smart coat, his carriage was jaunty, and his movements nimble. Also was he an expert swimmer. When you had said that about him you had said all. Nobody liked the toad's appearance: his progress on land was lumbering, to say the least, and no one thought of going to him for swimming lessons. With him swimming was a duty during certain weeks of the year. With the frog it was an art and a joy forever. But did the frog ever contribute to the happiness of the world as the toad had been doing but a few weeks earlier? I think not. The toad had not only the nightingale's eyes; he had, during those early spring months, the other gift of the nightingale as well. Had not all heard him on the mild evenings when, with his throat swelled out, he trilled love songs that made the whole pond musical? And did any one give him credit? No; they said, "Hear the *frogs* singing"!

Musing thus on the black injustice of things, I circled the pond and came again to the haunt of the original Lucky-bug. There he was, or his twin, skimming about as before. I approached, stooped over, reached out my hand, and grabbed.

I had him!

He was instantly in the fruit jar, where he seemed perfectly contented, sailing and diving as if he were on the pond.

I walked home triumphant. Did my luck change? Can you ask the question? I do not want to make the case too strong, for my attitude is that of the scientific investigator. So I will mention only two of the events that followed the capture of that Lucky-bug. And mind, please, that both of them occurred on that same Thursday.

On my way home, I found the works of an old alarm clock which somebody had abandoned. The cover, face, and bell were gone; but you could still wind it up and make a delightful whirring sound, calculated to distract all grown-ups. That was not all. When I got home, I found that there was to be strawberry shortcake for dinner—and my brother was gone for the day!

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THE NEW BOOKS

Where shall we find a man, originally of the lowest caste, who lifted himself up as high as did Prince Ito? The time has probably not yet arrived for a definitive biography of this great Japanese statesman; but certainly the time has arrived for various appreciations. The first to be published is "Prince Ito," by Mr. Kaju Nakamura. Mr. Nakamura is the editor of the "Japanese-American Commercial Weekly," and understands the American desire for a short, vivid presentation of an individuality. He thus attempts to describe Prince Ito, giving a third of his little book to various anecdotes. The anecdotes are not as individual as one has a right to expect and add little to the volume's value. Of more account to readers is the review of Prince Ito's rise to power. When he was a boy he began to realize the value of other ideas than Japanese; and yet he was a determined antagonist of the proposal to open Japanese ports to foreign vessels. He began to study the English language, not with an intent to change his views, but to strengthen them by affording him opportunity of knowing the outside world, which then seemed to him Japan's enemy. With his friend Inouye, he decided that a trip to Europe was necessary. But how could it be taken? It was then against the law for Japanese to leave Japan. The young men escaped, however, by disguising themselves and passing themselves off as foreigners. They worked their passage to England, observed many things there, and then returned to Japan to plead with their countrymen that the course of wisdom really lay in making peace with the foreigners. Finally, peace was made and the treaty was drawn up by young Ito himself. The budding statesman now saw that Japanese unity lay in the restoration to power of the Imperial Court, and with the enthronement in 1867 of the ruling Emperor of Japan, the present era of Meiji—the "Era of Enlightenment"—was begun. This accomplished, Ito now devoted his attention to upbuilding his country's industries. Together with his friend Okuma he arranged for a foreign loan with which to build the first railway in Japan. Then, in order to inform himself regarding finance, Ito visited America. Returning, he became head of the Japanese mint. He then visited Europe in order to make a study of constitutions. The result was the Japanese Constitution, of which he was principally the author. It was promulgated in 1889. Ito's power was now equal to that of any Japanese. He became Prime Minister no less than four times, and during his tenure of office he acccomplished much for his country, though often denounced for his high-handed course in dealing with the legislature; indeed, Mr. Nakamura admits that Ito's frequent resort to the Imperial edict was not altogether scrupulous. We are apt to know Prince Ito best by his conspicuous services in Japan's foreign policy, particularly in the circumstances attendant on the Japanese and Russian wars and in the reorganization of Korea, and perhaps Mr. Nakamura is within the mark in declaring that the part Prince Ito played in the Japanese foreign policy has been far more important than that of any other single person in any nation. (Anraku Publishing Co., New York. $1.)

Professor Ernest Arthur Gardner holds the chair of Archæology in the University of London. He was formerly Director of the British School of Archæology at Athens. His "Handbook of Greek Sculpture" is a recognized authority on that subject. He now supplements it by "Six Greek Sculptors." His "six" are Myron, Pheidias, Polyklitus, Praxiteles, Skopas, and Lysippus. Certainly these six stand out beyond all rivals. Not only their genius, their freedom also in artistic creation has probably never been attained by others. To each of the six a separate volume might well be assigned. And yet we are glad to have the condensation of Professor Gardner's erudition concerning them in a book describing them all. This is to be desired for three reasons: First, to help the young traveler who is beginning the study of art. He has seen the Venus de Milo in Paris, the Niobe in Florence, the Dying Gaul in Rome. He wonders how the creators of these sculptures rank chronologically. Perhaps he would like to know something about other Greek creators. In nine cases out of ten, however, the tyro wants to do this without following the whole course of Greek sculpture. Professor Gardner gives him the chance, albeit, once in a while, regrettably presupposing more knowledge than the young reader may possess. Secondly, the book will help more serious students of art—men and women who have lingered lovingly over the pages of such general works as Professor Gardner's, already mentioned, or the "Grammar of Greek Art," by Dr. Percy Gardner, Professor of Archæology at Oxford; as Furtwängler's "Masterpieces of Greek Sculpture," or Walters's "Art of the Greeks." These students hunger for no light meal, but for food that they can "feel in their teeth," to use a colloquialism. In the present volume they have that kind of pabulum—expert testimony concerning the greatest age of sculpture the world has ever seen. Thirdly, the book will help students of history. To study history nowadays means a great deal besides reading books called "The History of This" or "The History of That." As men now realize, history may not be learned without the study of biography. While the present volume embraces critical biographies and much general criticism too, the personal touch is vivid enough to make readers appreciate more what Greek history

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really meant. Prefatory to the six chapters describing the six sculptors there are introductory chapters on the characteristics of Greek sculpture as a whole, and on pre-Myronic sculpture in particular. The volume closes with a chapter on post-Lysippean artists—those who distinguished the so-called Hellenistic age. It, too, was a great age, if not equal to its predecessor. We may not forget that from the early part of it we have the glorious "Victory" from Samothrace, now mounted on one of the staircases in the Louvre at Paris. No matter how convenient for the study and admiration of men this statue's position is in the most cosmopolitan of cities, to be really appreciated, it and other Greek sculptures should be viewed in their native luminous air and upon sites hallowed by the history of classic ages. In the mind's eye, however, the sculptures can thus be seen by the sympathetic reader of the present volume. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $2.)

Dr. Henry Smith Williams, whose best known work is the voluminous "Historians' History of the World," of which he was the editor-in-chief, writes interestingly, and in the main wisely, on "The Science of Happiness." This is presented very much as Epicurus and Marcus Aurelius in combination, and with access to the stores of modern knowledge, might have presented it before the Christian era. It is sagacious, cheerful, tonic, and good as far as it goes, with plenty of point from facts. Its glaring defect is in treating "the problem of happiness" as independent of the satisfactions found in public-spirited and philanthropic activities, and in ignoring the efficient factor which genuine religion contributes to its solution. (Harper & Brothers, New York. $2.)

"The Story of the Constitution of the United States," by Rossiter Johnson, is a brief summary of the origin of the Constitution, the arguments by the framers, and the circumstances under which it was adopted. It is written by one who believes it is a great instrument that is "rigid when rigidity is demanded by safety, and flexible when flexibility is necessary for improvement." There is little critical discussion by the author. (Wessels & Bissell Company, New York. $1.)

In "The Duty of Altruism," the author, Ray Madding McConnell, Ph.D., Instructor in Social Ethics, Harvard University, considers the various reasons that have been offered for altruistic conduct. After rejecting in turn those offered by theology, metaphysics, logic, psychology, etc., he reaches the conclusion that there is no reason that can be given for altruism—that altruism is an ultimate fact of the normal will. The author writes clearly. Though at times he seems to be dogmatic, and at times seems to reach a negative conclusion simply because he has not a longer sounding-line, he is frank, sincere, and sound. He has made a real contribution to the unending discussion of moral conduct. (The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.50.)

Two books have just been published of interest to the Italy lover. One is a small book, the other is larger. One is the latest addition to the Mediæval Towns Series, the other to the States of Italy Series. The first book celebrates Padua; the second, Perugia. Padua is worth visiting, even if one sees it, as is likely, coming directly from Verona and Venice. Notable in the history of politics and government, Padua is more notable in the history of art. One willingly turns from its historic buildings and from its university to the contemplation now of the Gattamelata statue, and now of the Giotto frescoes. Alike as a narrative of historic events and as a description of the treasures of art Signor Cesare Foligno's "Story of Padua" (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York, $1.75) is commendable, though here and there his text quaintly betrays the fact that he is a foreigner. The text is heightened by Signor Vianelli's line-drawings, generally adequate, and sometimes exquisite. ——In comparison, the half-tone illustrations in "A History of Perugia" (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, $3.50), by William Heywood, are merely interesting, a like difference characterizing the text. Mr. Heywood's is soberer than is Signor Foligno's. More picturesque than is Paduan, Perugian history is here less vividly told. Some old chronicler of Perugia, Matarazzo, for instance, is more to our taste. But Mr. Heywood's volume is welcome, because, as does no other book, it divides Perugian history into two distinct parts. Perugia, says our author, had history, in the proper sense of that term, up to the war with Siena. It was ended in 1359, and marked Perugia's downfall. Thenceforth, he adds, Perugian history becomes only biography. Thus the first part of his book recounts pure history, for it is a narrative in very close and intimate relation with the history of the Italian peninsula in general. On the other hand, the latter part of the book has little such quality, and becomes the biography of individuals and families. This latter part is, nevertheless, of great interest. It seems more intimately written, an impression confirmed by the number of verbatim quotations in the foot-notes. It discloses the reasons for Perugia's decline. They were both political and economic. The political causes were emphasized by the gradual exclusion of the vast majority of the middle-class voters from a share of the government. It is interesting also to note the economic causes of Perugia's downfall, indeed specially interesting at a time when we are beginning to realize the true import of such causes in bringing about the downfall of Greece, as well as of Rome; of the English monarchy in 1649, as well as the French in 1789.

The virtues and accomplishments of three notable women have lately been duly celebrated. The three are "Matilda of Tus-

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cany" (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York, $3.50), who died in 1115, Elizabeth of Bohemia, who died in 1662, and Priscilla, Countess of Westmoreland, who died in 1870. Of the three, Matilda of Tuscany is by far the most distinguished figure. Dante placed her as guardian of his earthly paradise. Born in an age of barbarity and lawlessness, she knew how to preserve law and order. Born in an age when the Church was "finding itself," she, as mistress of the great stronghold of Canossa, gave refuge to Gregory VII, and there in 1077 that Pope humbled the Emperor Henry as no Emperor has ever before or since been humbled. In the well-printed volume just issued Matilda's biographer, Nora Duff, gives to us not only a fairly clear outline of probably the most interesting woman of her age, but also a view of that strange, far-off epoch, realizing the well-worn phrase "it is always darkest just before dawn." For with the dawn the Gothic age broke upon the world. Less vividly celebrated is "Elizabeth, Electress Palatine and Queen of Bohemia" (E. P. Dutton & Co., $3), the daughter of James VI of Scotland, who became James I of England. The present volume is largely a reprint of the sketch of Elizabeth in Mrs. Everett Green's "History of the Princesses of England," but it is noteworthy because of the criticisms therein by Mrs. Lomas, the present editor. Some of her opinions differ from Mrs. Green's earlier conclusions. Yet it makes little difference to us nowadays whether we believe with one of these ladies that Elizabeth's husband did plot to obtain the Bohemian crown or with the other that he did not. What is of more account is the transmission of the atmosphere of another time to be found both in the original description and in the lengthy editorial notes. The third biography is mainly made up of the "Correspondence of Priscilla, Countess of Westmoreland," edited by her daughter, Lady Rose Weigall. The Countess was a niece of the great Duke of Wellington. Her husband filled a succession of important diplomatic posts. But she seems to us entirely capable of filling them herself. Both through her own family connections and through her husband's work she was constantly in touch with extremely interesting affairs, particularly with the making of modern Germany. Her comment on men and measures could hardly be more incisive or far-sighted. Her letters bring before us an interesting medley of worth-while folk. While occasionally the book may possibly seem too gossipy, as a whole it well repays reading. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $5.)

The world of readers may be getting tired of "The Real This" and "The Real That." We have had "The Real George Washington," "The Real Abraham Lincoln," and down through the list of worthies past and present, until now we have "The Real Francis Joseph," by M. Henri de Weindel. The volume is plentifully supplied with direct discourse. Very vivid, terse, and interesting discourse it is too, though at times of light weight. We know not just how much credence may be placed in it, but the volume discloses a more or less intimate acquaintance with the customs of the Austrian Court. It does not disclose, we are glad to say, as much of a *chronique scandaleuse* as some unworthy minds may be led to expect. (D. Appleton & Co., New York. $4.)

Well adapted to correct some modern forms of ancient error is a volume from Dr. Muir, of Glasgow Cathedral, criticising some "Modern Substitutes for Christianity"—viz., Morality without Religion, The Religion of the Universe, The Religion of Humanity, and Theism without Christ. Its criticisms are not confined to these, but wisely include the merely nominal Christianity from whose anæmic condition the proposed substitutes for it derive whatever show of plausibility they make. The record of the primitive Church, which supplanted the ancient paganism by the demonstration of its superior moral energy, and of the modern Church wherever planted amid a pagan people, points the churches of Christendom to their only convincing way of eclipsing pretentious rivals—a higher moral potential. (Hodder & Stoughton, New York. $1.50.)

It would be hard to find more quickening addresses to young men than the collection entitled "Respectable Sins," from the pen of "Ian Maclaren," the gifted preacher and writer whose loss the English-speaking world still laments. In its "rich pouring forth of natural thoughts in natural words," its blend of warm feeling and keen intellect, its virile yet tender enthusiasm for humanity, its clear insight of fallacy and reality, and its close adaptedness to the conditions of modern life, it is rarely illuminating and inspirational. Such characteristics, together with its literary form and finish, promise it rank among the classics of sermonic literature. (Hodder & Stoughton, New York. $1.25.)

President Northrop, of the University of Minnesota, yields to the request of many friends in publishing a volume of nearly thirty "Addresses Educational and Patriotic." They handle many subjects of both National and professional interest. They give wise counsel to teachers, lawyers, physicians, and boys. They are rich in biographical and historical matter. They are characterized by ethical vigor and solid common sense, and often gleam with humor. As professor in the English Department at Yale many years since, and for the last quarter-century as University President at Minneapolis, Dr. Northrop has made his mark enduringly on thousands of students. Now that the cup of which many have drunk refreshingly has run over into this volume, many others will thank him for the overflow. (The H. W. Wilson Company, Minneapolis, Minnesota.)

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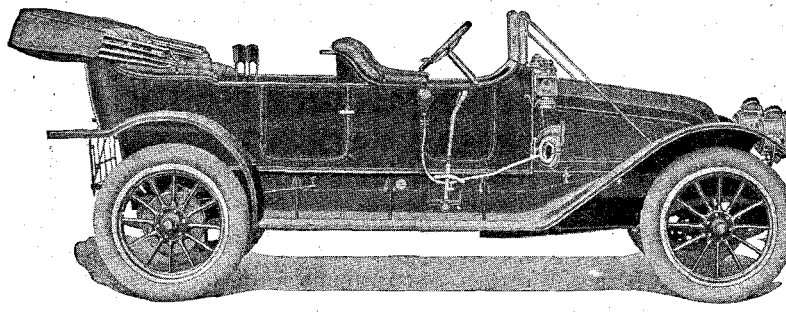
Franklin "The Car Beautiful"

1911 1911



Seven-passenger open body

New Features: Handsome flush-sided bodies; beautiful new hood; new oiling system, overcoming smoking; quiet valve action; engine air jacket arranged to give complete accessibility; more room between the dash and the front seat and greater rake to steering column. ¶Model G has a longer wheel base. Model D is larger and has six 4 x 4 cylinders. Model H is larger, with six 4½ x 4½ cylinders. M is a new model, with four 4 x 4 cylinders. Top is standard equipment on all models.

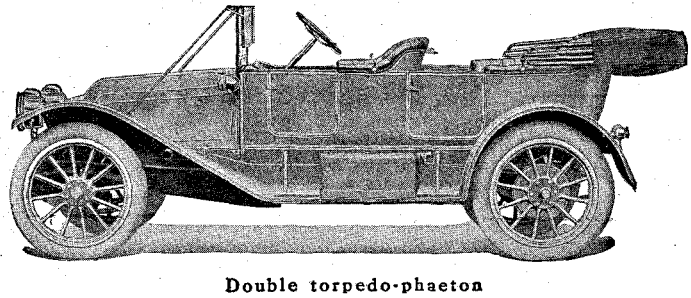
List of Models: Model H, 48-horse-power, six-cylinder, 133-inch wheel base, is fitted with seven-passenger open body or double torpedo-phaeton body. ¶Model D, 38-horse-power, six-cylinder, 123-inch wheel base, is fitted with five-passenger open body, double torpedo-phaeton body or seven-passenger limousine body. ¶Model M, 25-horse-power, four-cylinder, 108-inch wheel base, fitted with five-passenger open body or five-passenger limousine body. ¶Model G, 18-horse-power, four-cylinder, 100-inch wheel base, fitted with four-passenger open body or single torpedo-phaeton body.

The new Franklin hood lends itself perfectly to the flush-sided body. With no radiator to spoil the effect the body and hood lines are blended harmoniously.

Beauty in the Franklin is thrice beautiful because of its resilient construction, which gives the only luxurious riding, and because of its tire equipment, which eliminates the annoyance and expense of tire trouble.

Franklin air cooling is the ideal system for an automobile engine; it presents the greatest latitude of operation; it affords the lightest, simplest construction. It does all that water cooling can do, and more. The extra service it gives makes it superior to all other cooling systems.

To set forth in detail all the advantages of Franklin air cooling over water cooling would require another page, but the features which are bound to decide you are: Simplicity, freedom from attention, independence of climate and weather conditions, reliability, there being nothing to break down, and a higher thermo-dynamic efficiency.



Double torpedo-phaeton

New catalogue on request

H H FRANKLIN MANUFACTURING COMPANY Syracuse N Y

Licensed under Selden Patent

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in R.M.S.P. "ATRATO"

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Charges strictly moderate

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12 Months' Tour, **August 10**
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Please mention which Booklet you desire
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Travel that means much because true meanings are given worthy consideration.
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SAIL *Life is our theme* **JULY**
ITALY-SCOTLAND, July 9.
OUTING TOUR (par excellence), July 2.
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Our leaders show you much modern life.
Write for travel and hotel brochure. Free.
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Private cars. Go where you please. Illustrated booklet free by post.
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Also: Tour Spain, Sicily, Italy (Christmas in Rome), and France, sailing Nov., Dec., Jan., Feb.
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Small parties sailing Sept., Oct., and Nov.
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Sailing Jan. and Feb., 1911
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Passion Play Special Late sailing. Duration 38 days. Price only $225, including all expenses. H. J. GRISWOLD, Shelter St., New Haven, Conn.

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Send for this Book

Cape Cod's the place where you would enjoy yourself this summer.

We've a beautifully illustrated book that tells about the summer pleasures that await *you* on Cape Cod—the yachting, the bathing, the fishing and the social life.

Before you decide where to go this summer, send for "Quaint Cape Cod."

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The out-of-the-way and unfamiliar nooks and corners—arrangements *rather exclusive.*

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Thoroughly equipped for treatment of nervous diseases and chronic affections of heart, kidneys or stomach.

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Boating, bathing, fishing. Woods, fields, mineral springs, excellent table, launch and telephone, lawn tennis. Send for picture folders. S. G. Simpson, Simpson's Pt., Brunswick, Me.

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ATLANTIC CITY, NEW JERSEY
An ideal place for a long or short stay. Stone, brick and steel building. Rooms en suite with hot and cold sea water in private baths. Over 70 forms of Tonic and Curative Baths and Treatments with trained attendants. Sea Water used in all Hydriatic Treatments.
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Every room the same full ocean view. Right on the Beach. Seventeenth season under the same management. S. Hinkson-Woodward.

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Homelike Hotel for Ladies Unescorted
Every room has a private bath for $2 per day
Room with private bath, meals for one, $3.00 day
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Our Porter will meet you at station by appointment

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A Summer at Sea. 5 hours from N.Y. Twenty-sixth season opens June 29th. Write for circular. Golf, tennis. T. Vaill Barton, Mgr.

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Summer Cottages, Islands, Bungalows, Farms.

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45 min. from New York. Lackawanna R.R. 40 trains a day each way. Modern house, 13 rooms, 3 baths; 6 acres, stable. For Sale only. McClure, 31 East 17th St., New York.

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Real Estate, Saranac Lake, N. Y.

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To be let for the season—a Summer Camp belonging to the late Seth E. Thomas. Consists of a large log house, with living-room, kitchen, etc., eight bedrooms, annex for servants, and bachelor quarters, with three bedrooms, lounging-room, kitchen, etc. Boat-house, launch, rowboats, complete.

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Real Estate

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FOR RENT

Just Opposite Newport

Summer cottage at Jamestown, Rhode Island. 8 bedrooms, 2 baths, reception hall, drawing room, music room, dining room, kitchen and laundry. Garage and chauffeur's rooms. In close proximity to gentlemen's club and yacht club and five minutes' walk from Newport ferries and about 80 ft. from shore. Apply to Dr. H. J. RHETT, Jamestown, R. I., Box 33.

FOR THE HOME

DOMESTIC SCIENCE handbook free. Correspondence courses. American School Home Economics, Chicago.

BOARD AND ROOMS

ACCOMMODATIONS for strangers visiting New York. Refined boarding house, with or without meals. Rates reasonable. References. 38 West 25th St.

A gentlewoman will take two or three little girls into her attractive suburban home. References. Address Woman's Exchange, New Haven, Connecticut.

WANTED—A feeble-minded young man to board. 4,063, Outlook.

BOOKS, MAGAZINES MANUSCRIPTS

AUTHORS, we can bring your work to the attention of 300 editors. Let us place your book MSS., stories, essays, poems. Send for circular. N. Y. Authors' Exchange, 154 Nassau St., New York.

WRITERS and authors, send your books to us for estimate. We print, bind, and arrange for marketing at lowest cost. Lino Type-Casting Co., 259 William St., New York.

BUSINESS OPPORTUNITIES

OF those twins "SAYSO" and "DUSO," the latter is by far the most popular, for the reason that "hearing" is not always "believing." I persistently claim to build advertising matters with a pronounced and profitable "unlikeness," and I as persistently seek opportunities to offer samples of my work in evidence. Francis I. Maule, 411 Sansom St., Philadelphia.

WANTED—Purchaser for fine building and beautiful plot admirably suited for family hotel, greatly needed, in large Hudson River town. Formerly a girls' school. A money-making proposition. 4,066, Outlook.

HELP WANTED

Professional Situations

WANTED—A purveyor in a large institution. An educated woman dietitian preferred. To purchase all foods and have charge of cooking and kitchens. Experience in buying essential. References required. Address 4,049, Outlook.

INCREASE your earning power by learning to write advertisements. Facts sent free. Page-Davis Co., Dept. 32, Page Building, Chicago.

DODD, Mead & Co. desire a representative who will give full or part time in each city and county. Clergymen, lawyers, doctors, and other educated men are invited to communicate with us immediately. The reward is generous and the work pleasant. Address Dodd, Mead & Co., 30th St. and 4th Ave., New York.

Companions and Domestic Helpers

HOUSE mother for boys' school. Reference. 4,055, Outlook.

Teachers and Governesses

TEACHERS wanted for public and private schools. Calls from every State. Register now for September. Send for Bulletin 21. Albany Teachers' Agency, Albany, N. Y.

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ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

CALOX

THE OXYGEN TOOTH POWDER

In principle and in efficiency the only perfect dentifrice is CALOX, the Oxygen Tooth Powder. Its principle is the evolution of oxygen. Its efficiency as a cleanser of the teeth is due to the oxygen which it generates when used.

"The Oxygen Does It"

Dentists advise its use
Physicians prescribe it

ALL DRUGGISTS 25c.

Sample and booklet free on request

McKesson & Robbins
Fulton Street
New York

The Man May Wilt But Not

The first and only satisfactory permanent linen-wear

Litholin Waterproofed Linen Collars and Cuffs

They weather all weathers—hot, cold, wet or dry they keep their shape, and **have that dull linen finish.** In every fashionable cut and style. When soiled they wipe white as new with a damp cloth. Wear them and bank your savings.

Collars 25c. Cuffs 50c.

If not at your dealers, send, giving style, size, number wanted, with remittance, and we will mail, postpaid. Booklet of styles free on request.

THE FIBERLOID CO.
7 Waverly Place, New York

STYLE ECONOMY — WATERPROOFED LINEN — **LITHOLIN** — COLLARS & CUFFS — FIT COMFORT

THE OUTLOOK CLASSIFIED DEPARTMENT

HELP WANTED

Teachers and Governesses

TEACHERS—Register to-day to secure a teaching position. Vacancies still occurring. New Century Teachers' Bureau, 1420 Chestnut St., Philadelphia.

PACIFIC COAST? Salaries, expenses, certification, etc., explained. 20c. stamps. California Teachers' Agency. San Francisco. Los Angeles.

FOR housekeepers, matrons, governesses, mothers' helpers, etc., address Miss Richards, Saunderstown, R. I.

DOMESTIC science teacher over 25 years age, with practical and theoretical knowledge of subject, wanted in girls' boarding school in Eastern city. Address full information 4,058, Outlook.

WANTED—Housekeeper, $50, school; German kindergartner, $500; Hotel housekeeper; male teacher—German, Latin; head attendant (sanitarium); other positions. The Hopkins' Educational Bureau, 507 Fifth Ave.

SITUATIONS WANTED

Professional Situations

PHYSICIAN, young woman, would travel with invalid lady. Experienced. References. 4,054, Outlook.

TRAINED nurse would board and care for semi-invalid, elderly or nervous person in her own beautiful, modern country home. Moderate charge. Address M., 4,065, Outlook.

Business Situations

EXCEPTIONAL. Capable, cultured woman, good health, age 38, desires position in girls' school or college dormitory. Would act as housekeeping superintendent, chaperon, social director. Highest references. 4,069, Outlook.

SITUATIONS WANTED

Business Situations

EXPERIENCED hotel and club luncheroom manager (woman) desires position after September 15th. 4,029, Outlook.

Companions and Domestic Helpers

HOUSEMOTHER for school or institution. Reference. 4,010, Outlook.

LADY, aged 50, who has acted as companion and as housekeeper, seeks similar position. Address Housekeeper, 4th Floor Jenkins Bldg., Pittsburgh, Pa.

POSITION wanted by woman of culture as traveling companion, secretary, or managing housekeeper. 4,059, Outlook.

WANTED—By a refined young English woman, position as housekeeper. Competent, good cook. West preferred. 4,057, Outlook.

CORNELL lady graduate desires position as companion, secretary, or tutor. Would travel. Good reader, linguist. 4,051, Outlook.

GRADUATE nurse, refined (colored), desires position to care for invalid. Willing to travel. References. Nurse, 1617 Benson Ave., Evanston, Ill.

LADY going to Europe late in July will escort child or young girl for the price of the passage. 4,067, Outlook.

AMERICAN gentlewoman of capability and genial personality desires position as companion or chaperon. Can also assume responsibility of a home or will travel. Highest references. 4,068, Outlook.

Teachers and Governesses

THE Harvard University Appointments Office can recommend experienced tutors and companions, competent to tutor boys for any college entrance examinations. Also men for general work during the summer months in the country or city. Address The Secretary for Appointments, 9 University Hall, Cambridge, Mass.

TUTOR with experience wishes position. 4,060, Outlook.

SITUATIONS WANTED

Teachers and Governesses

YOUNG man, Southerner, B.A. Columbia, doing graduate work, will tutor, act as companion or secretary. 4,056, Outlook.

SITUATION wanted, by lady graduate School of Museum of Fine Arts, Boston, to teach course of design in family or school, also beginners in singing. Willing to travel. 4,053, Outlook.

GOVERNESSSHIP desired. New methods develop accuracy, attentiveness, latent capacities. 4,062, Outlook.

TUTOR—Greek, Latin, German, English, mathematics. Experienced graduate. References. 4,070, Outlook.

MISCELLANEOUS

SCHOOL for TRAINED ATTENDANTS, 45 Centre Street, Orange, New Jersey. Superintendent, Miss Lowrie. Six months' course. Fee $100, including tuition, board, lodging, uniforms, and books. For further information apply to school.

HOPKINS sells everything for MOTOR BOATS and yachts. Send for catalog and save money. 119 Chambers St., New York.

PLAYS. Katharine McDowell Rice, Worthington, Mass.

AUTOMOBILE HOODS of rajah silk $1.00. Hand-embroidered bath-robes $25.00. M. S. S., Box 455, New York City.

ALL kinds shopping. No charge. References. Ida Ambrose, 34 Ormond Pl., Brooklyn, N. Y.

THE Deaconess House and Training School for Christian Workers of the Presbyterian and Reformed Churches is prepared to receive applications of women desiring to undertake the training, with the view of devoting their lives to the work. Several scholarships will be vacant in September, 1910. Applicants must be of sound health; prepared to give references. For information, apply to Deaconess Stone, 903 Clinton St., Phila., Pa.

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Tchaykovsky's Own Story

Nicolas Tchaykovsky, the Russian patriot who is called "the Father of the Revolution," is writing exclusively for The Outlook the intensely interesting and dramatic story of his recent arrest by the Russian Imperial police, his imprisonment for eleven months, and his final release.

The Outlook

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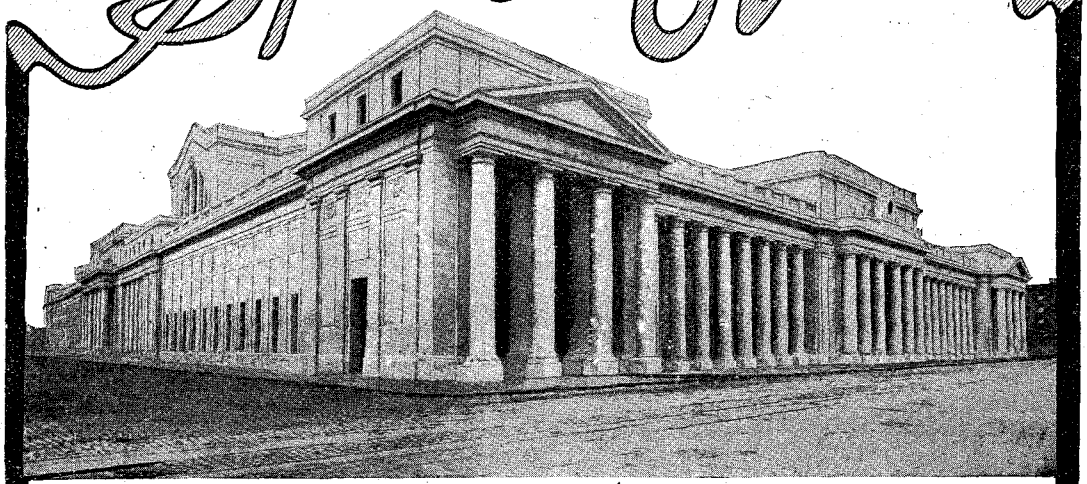
Barrett Specification Roofs



Pennsylvania R. R. Terminal

THE Pennsylvania Railroad Terminal in New York City is the central feature of an improvement whose total cost will reach $100,000,000. It is a magnificent structure built for efficiency, almost regardless of cost.

It is covered with a Barrett Specification Roof, with vitrified tile surface.

Would such a roof have been used on this magnificent, modern, fireproof structure if anything better could be obtained at *any* price? Surely not.

The fact is, a Barrett Specification Roof is the most economical roof covering yet devised. And it has a record of 50 years of satisfaction behind it.

In addition to the great roof, the foundations are waterproofed with Coal Tar Pitch and Felt—the same materials as are used in Barrett Specification Roofs.

Before construction was commenced, a careful study was made by the chemists of the Pennsylvania Terminal Co. of many waterproofing compounds, with the result that it was decided to use Coal Tar Pitch instead of Asphalt.

About 4,000,000 pounds of Barrett's pitch were used for underground work and roofing.

The Barrett Specification should be in the hands of every architect, engineer, and owner of buildings. Copy of it free on request.

BARRETT MANUFACTURING COMPANY

New York Chicago Philadelphia Boston St. Louis Cleveland Cincinnati
Pittsburg Minneapolis Kansas City New Orleans London, Eng.

TRADE B MARK

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$1,500,000

Stearns Coal & Lumber Company

(Stearns, Kentucky)

First Mortgage 6% Serial Gold Bonds

Dated July 1st, 1910. Payable in Series as below. Coupon bonds of $1,000 and $500, each with Privilege of Registration as to Principal. Principal and Semi-Annual Interest payable at the First National Bank of Chicago and the First National Bank of New York. First Trust & Savings Bank, Chicago, Trustee.

MATURITIES

$50,000	July 1,	1911	$60,000	July 1,	1914	$60,000	July 1,	1917	$75,000	July 1,	1920
50,000	January 1,	1912	60,000	January 1,	1915	75,000	January 1,	1918	75,000	January 1,	1921
50,000	July 1,	1912	60,000	July 1,	1915	75,000	July 1,	1918	75,000	July 1,	1921
60,000	January 1,	1913	60,000	January 1,	1916	75,000	January 1,	1919	75,000	January 1,	1922
60,000	July 1,	1913	60,000	July 1,	1916	75,000	July 1,	1919	75,000	July 1,	1922
60,000	January 1,	1914	60,000	January 1,	1917	75,000	January 1,	1920			

These bonds are secured by an absolute First Mortgage on all the property of the Company located in Kentucky and Tennessee, which constitutes one of the most valuable coal and timber holdings in one ownership in the entire South, also on all the property of the Kentucky and Tennessee Railway Company.

The security is conservatively valued by us at over **FIVE TIMES** the amount of the bonds and the margin of security will rapidly increase by reason of the large serial payments.

The mortgage provides for large sinking funds on both coal and timber and the net earnings of the Company will be considerably in excess of the requirements for both principal and interest.

The ownership of the Company is in strong and practical hands assuring conservative and successful management.

The bonds are **GUARANTEED** by Mr. Justus S. Stearns, President of the Company, and this guarantee places behind them additional assets of over $2,500,000, and an assured income of large proportions.

We offer the unsold portion of these bonds at par and accrued interest.

Ask for Circular No. 702 Z

Peabody, Houghteling & Co.

(Established 1865) (51) **181 La Salle Street, CHICAGO**

YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

IN PACIFIC NORTHWEST SECURITIES AT THE SERVICE OF INVESTORS

If you lived in Missouri and wanted information concerning the laws of the State of Washington would you write to a New York attorney on the subject?

Isn't it logical to apply the same reasoning to your purchase of bonds?

We think you should consult us when considering the purchase of Pacific Northwest Securities for the following reasons:

Our operations are confined exclusively to Municipal and Corporation Bonds originating in the Pacific Northwest which are purchased for our own account after the most searching investigation.

Our officers have lived in the Pacific Northwest from 5 to 40 years and have been dealing in interest bearing securities from 10 to 30 years.

We know the Pacific Northwest, its geography, its history, its resources, its development, its prospects and its people.

For many years we have been prominently identified with the financial development of the Pacific Northwest.

WE COURT THE FULLEST INVESTIGATION OF OUR SECURITIES AND OURSELVES AND REFER TO ANY BANK OR INDIVIDUAL IN SEATTLE.

Write FOR LIST "B" OF WELL SELECTED BONDS NETTING

4½ to 7%

JACOB FURTH
F. K. STRUVE

JOHN DAVIS
VINCENT D. MILLER

J. E. PATRICK, Mgr.

DAVIS & STRUVE BOND CO.

709 Second Ave., Seattle

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A Safe & Sure 5%

A Comfortable Investment

is one which yields reasonable earnings safely and surely; which enables you to forget your capital until you need it, and then *to get it on short notice.*

The Industrial Savings and Loan Company has paid its depositors 5% regularly every year for 17 years. Its business is conducted

under the supervision of the New York Banking Department

It invests only in first-class mortgages on New York City and suburban real estate.

It accepts deposits and allows withdrawals *upon any date*, paying earnings for every day it holds your money.

Assets over - - $2,250,000
Surplus and Profits 175,000

An investment with us is a *comfortable investment.*

Send for our booklet.

Industrial Savings and Loan Co.
10 Times Bldg., Broadway & 42d St., New York

INDUSTRIAL SAVINGS and LOAN CO. NEW YORK CITY

"A Book About Guaranteed Mortgages" Sent Free

GUARANTEED FIRST MORTGAGES

Our First Mortgage Trust Bonds

are secured by first mortgages on New York and Suburban Real Estate, deposited with the Windsor Trust Company for the further protection of bondholders. Exceptionally desirable for investors of moderate means who can enjoy all the advantages of safety and income. Purchase payments of $10 to $100 and upwards at your convenience secures at once the ownership and income of these bonds. Cashable upon short notice—interest payable semi-annually.

Yielding 5 to 5½% NET

WRITE TO-DAY FOR OUR BOOK

One of our several plans may prove exactly what you are looking for.

Under Supervision of New York Banking Dept.

NEW YORK MORTGAGE CO.
Dept. B, 1475 Broadway, New York City

5%

A Man Who Works Hard for His Money

is entitled to receive the highest rate of interest that his savings can legitimately earn. That is why we pay 5 per cent interest instead of 3 or 4.

The money earns 5 per cent in absolutely sound investments and the depositor is entitled to it.

This Company has been in business 14 years. Its management is conservative and its investments are backed by improved real estate of more than double the value.

Money invested with us can be withdrawn at any time without notice and without loss of interest earned.

Write for booklet.

The Calvert Mortgage & Deposit Co.
1049 Calvert Building, Baltimore, Md.

TWO FACTORS A SOUND INVESTMENT A STEADY INCOME

GOLD BONDS AT A PRICE THAT WILL NET **Better Than 6%**

Los Angeles Inner Harbor Pacific Wharf & Storage Co.

The property of the PACIFIC WHARF AND STORAGE COMPANY lies on east side of inner harbor of Los Angeles opposite to and within 1000 ft. of slip, (THE LARGEST ON PACIFIC COAST), which has been completed by Southern Pacific R. R. Co. The company's holdings embrace 80 acres, inclosed by GRANITE BREAKWATER, constructed under supervision of UNITED STATES ENGINEERING OFFICE. The completion of PANAMA CANAL, bringing Los Angeles within two weeks water communication with New York, and delivery of OWENS RIVER WATER to Los Angeles means the great development and utilization of natural resources of GREAT SOUTH-WEST. THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT HAS ALREADY EXPENDED $4.000,000 at Los Angeles Harbor. THE WAR DEPARTMENT has already purchased site and will build fortifications at a cost of about $3,500,000, which overlooks property of this company, and Los Angeles is to spend $3,500,000 for harbor improvements. THIS SHOWS WHAT THE COMMERCE OF LOS ANGELES HARBOR WILL BE.

THIS BOND ISSUE offers conservative investors who wish to make their money "THE MOST MONEY" the most secure, the cheapest and BEST PAYING bond ever issued for harbor property development. DENOMINATION $1000. INTEREST PAYABLE SEMI-ANNUALLY either at NEW YORK or LOS ANGELES. WRITE TODAY FOR MAPS, BOOKLETS AND FACTS, also about interest guarantee.

BOND DEPARTMENT

Merchants Bank & Trust Co.,
Los Angeles, California
Capital $250,000 Surplus $200,000
Total Resources $2,000,000

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Standards of Investment

Relative Security of Legal Bonds

Certain States have surrounded investments of Savings Banks and Insurance Companies with conservative restrictions.

Many Investors wish to be guided by rules similar to those that govern these institutions, as bonds in the "Legal" class are possessed of security in a high degree.

We have prepared a booklet giving a list of bonds which are Legal Investments for Savings Banks in the States of New York, Massachusetts and Connecticut, as well as other useful information.

This pamphlet will be sent to those interested upon request.

We are prepared to make suggestions looking to the investment of definite sums, and will gladly submit offerings of bonds adapted to various needs.

White, Weld & Co.

The Rookery, Chicago — 5 Nassau Street, New York

Seattle Mortgages

For Safety, Satisfaction, Seven Per Cent

In ten years' experience over One Million Dollars ($1,000,000) placed in Seattle First Real Estate Mortgages through this office, without the loss of a cent to the mortgagee, or a day's delay in the payment of either interest or principal when due.

ARE YOU GETTING EQUAL RESULTS FROM YOUR MONEY?

Our list of satisfied investors includes residents of most of the states of the Union. Ninety-five per cent of our investors send their funds to us for re-investment when mortgages are paid off.

You will be interested in our new illustrated booklet descriptive of our Seattle mortgages.

Send for it today, ask for Booklet D.

JOSEPH E. THOMAS & CO., INC.

109 Cherry St., Seattle, Washington

D. C. HEATH & COMPANY of Boston have issued $300,000 preferred stock, of which we offer the unsold balance of $200,000. This preferred stock is to replace an amount of Common Stock of equal value.

An Industrial of the Highest New England Type

D. C. HEATH & COMPANY

Preferred Stock

Price $100. To net 7%

D. C. HEATH & COMPANY is one of the best known school-book publishing houses in the country. It has had a successful and constantly growing business for twenty-five years, and ranks as the third largest text-book house in the United States. It has the highest reputation throughout the educational field, not only for the excellence of its publications, but for the fairness of its business methods.

It is under the management of men who have had wide and successful experience in educational and publishing work, all of whom have a substantial interest in the common stock.

The issue of Preferred Stock is backed by net assets of over $1,000,000. The earnings of the past ten years have averaged over four times the dividend requirement. Undivided profits amount to over $400,000.

There are no bonds or mortgages on the property, nor can any be placed during the life of this issue. The security of this stock is unquestioned. We recommend it most strongly to all investors.

Our booklet on Industrial Investments giving important facts about this and other stocks on our list will be sent on request.

GAVET & PORTER

Sterling New England Securities

47 Kilby St. Boston

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6% GOLD BONDS

A Conservative Investment

Based on

New York Real Estate

Here are some essential facts in proof of the merit of the American Real Estate Company's 6% Gold Bond offering:

¶ A record of 22 years of successful operation.
¶ An unbroken line of contracts faithfully fulfilled.
¶ Every obligation met upon its due date.
¶ A just interest return earned and paid.
¶ Constant growth in Assets and Surplus.
¶ One-third of outstanding Bonds held by reinvestors.
¶ A fundamentally sound and conservative business.
¶ Time-tried, panic-tested, legally safe-guarded.

These Bonds are based on the actual ownership of millions of dollars' worth of carefully selected New York real estate, which furnishes ample security and assures high earning power. Your investment in them means:

¶ *SAFETY*
¶ *JUST INTEREST RETURN*
¶ *LIBERAL SURRENDER PRIVILEGES*

American Real Estate Company Bonds are issued in these two attractive forms:

6% COUPON BONDS
For investing $100 or more.
Interest payable semi-annually by coupons.

6% ACCUMULATIVE BONDS
For saving $25 or more a year.
Payable in instalments. Compound interest.

¶ Let us tell you more about A-R-E Six's and why our old investors are constantly reinvesting in them. ¶ Illustrated booklets, new map of New York City, etc., yours for the asking. ¶ Will you write to-day?

American Real Estate Company

Assets, $15,536,199.47 Founded 1888 Capital and Surplus, $1,851,154.38

Room 505, 527 Fifth Avenue, New York

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The Most Eminent Thinkers of Church and State Have Endorsed Life Insurance

Rev. Edward E. Hale:
"The disinterested work of the medical profession and the spread of life insurance over this world I take to be two of the finest concrete illustrations of the principles on which Christianity is founded."

Rev. Henry Ward Beecher:
"Your affairs may become involved, and your property be taken for debt. But a thousand dollars insurance on your life cannot be taken for debt; cannot be alienated from your heirs; and if you have chosen your company discreetly, is subject to no commercial risks. It is as nearly sure as anything earthly can be."

Bishop Henry C. Potter:
"Life insurance has advantages, especially to persons of small means, which it does not seem easy to overstate. To those of my own profession it furnishes a method of laying by for 'a rainy day' of all the most practicable and effectual."

Rev. Lyman Abbott:
"What many men count an objection to life insurance, I count its first advantage. It compels thrift; it necessitates saving; it puts the insured under bonds to lay up a few dollars every year to provide for the future.

President William H. Taft:
"A man in office without means, must abandon the hope of making the future of his family luxuriously comfortable. All a man can do under existing circumstances to safeguard his family is to get his life insured."

Hon. Theodore Roosevelt:
"Life insurance increases the stability of the business world, raises its moral tone and puts a premium upon those habits of thrift and saving which are so essential to the welfare of the people as a body."

Governor Charles E. Hughes:
"I could not possibly exaggerate my deep sympathy in the purpose of influencing those who have many dependent upon them, to take advantage, through thrift and providence, of the opportunities that are afforded by our insurance contracts. As I have said, I believe in life insurance."

Hon. Grover Cleveland:
"Get a policy and then hold on to it. It means self-respect, it means that nobody will have to put something in a hat for you or your dependent ones if you should be snatched away from them."

IS *YOUR* LIFE INSURED?

IF NOT: Can you give any good reason—other than ineligibility—why you should not insure?

IF INSURED: Are you *adequately* insured? Will the income from your life insurance be sufficient to provide for your family as they are now accustomed to living?

Why not send for the *Equitable Life Assurance Society* man *now*—to-day?

THE EQUITABLE LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY

OF THE UNITED STATES

"Strongest in the World"

The Company which pays its death claims on the day it receives them.

PAUL MORTON, PRESIDENT **120 BROADWAY, NEW YORK CITY**

AGENCIES EVERYWHERE: None in your town? Then why not recommend to us some good man —or woman—to represent us there—Great opportunities today in Life Insurance work for the Equitable.

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"HI-LO"
(Patented)
Desk Attachment

¶ Indispensable to the busy man.

¶ Adds an extra full-size writing surface to ANY roll top desk.

¶ Attaches without bolts, screws or nails.

¶ Allows you to stand or sit at your work and to change instantly.

¶ Disappears when not in use. Send for booklet.

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INVESTORS HOLD THE SECURITY

Those investing in our Certificates hold in their possession all papers such as Appraisers' Sworn Report, Mortgage and Insurance Policies. Real Estate securing these Certificates is worth at least double the mortgage. Their stability is also guaranteed by this bank. 6% payable semi-annually.

Write for booklet "A."

CENTURY BANKING CO.
JACKSON, MISS.

THE BANK THAT PAYS SIX PER CENT ON DOUBLY SECURED CERTIFICATES

6%

You procure the best security obtainable—First Mortgages on improved Real Estate—when you invest in our Secured Certificates which yield 6% per annum.

Write for booklet "A."

SALT LAKE SECURITY & TRUST CO.
CAPITAL & SURPLUS $400,000.00 SALT LAKE CITY, U.

SAFE 6% LOANS

Investigation will convince the most critical investor. We make a specialty of strictly conservative **Kansas City, Mo. Real Estate Mortgages** that will pay you 6 per cent net. Security values constantly increasing. References on request. Write today for list. Address Desk D Loan Dept., J. S. Chick Investment Co., Kansas City, Mo.

The Franklin Society

If you are looking for a profitable, yet strictly savings investment, small or large, investigate the Franklin Society.

It is organized under the New York Banking Law, the best State Banking Law in the Union, and is carefully supervised by the Superintendent of Banks. In July it paid its 43d consecutive dividend—rate, 4½% per annum.

The Society has continually enjoyed an ever increasing public confidence, based upon its long and honorable record. Accounts of $10 or more opened on or before July 30th earn from August 1.

Begin now. Send $1 or more and get a mailing size pass book or write for booklet X.

THE FRANKLIN SOCIETY
For Home Building and Savings, So. Side Beekman, Cor. Park Row, N. Y.

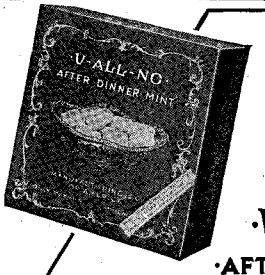
4½ PER CENT

6% NET

For 35 years we have been paying our customers the highest returns consistent with conservative methods. First mortgage loans of $200 and up which we can recommend after the most thorough personal investigation. Please ask for Loan List No. 711. $25 Certificates of Deposit also for saving investors.

PERKINS & CO. Lawrence, Kans.

Returnable examination copies of the great hymn book
HALLOWED HYMNS
mailed on request to churches needing new books.
THE BIGLOW & MAIN CO., New York or Chicago



The Charm of Cream Mint

is in its freshness, flavor, purity and delicacy of texture —all found in

·U-ALL-NO·
·AFTER DINNER MINT·

Famous everywhere as a delicious confection for any occasion.

Sold in air-tight tins by grocers, confectioners and druggists. If not at your dealer's send 10c for a liberal box.

MANUFACTURING CO. OF AMERICA, 441 North 12th St., Philadelphia

ANTIQUES

Some Old Mahogany Furniture, Chairs, Tables, Sofas, Bureaus, Highboys, Desks, etc. Gilt Mirrors, Sconces, etc. Mantel, Banjo, and Grandfather's Clocks. A fine stock of Old China, Lowestoft, Staffordshire, and other famous potteries; Old Pewter Plates, Platters, Mugs, etc. Antique Glass Ware. An unusually attractive stock of Antique Jewelry. Small articles in China, Copper, Brass, Glass, etc. Many fine Old Prints. List on request to those interested in Antiques.

Mrs. ADA M. ROBERTS
Washington, New Hampshire.

SHOPPING BY MAIL Twenty years' experience with the leading shops enables me to give you the best service in New York. Send for free booklet.
HELEN L. DWYER, 1 W. 34th St., opp. Waldorf.

Bronze Memorial Tablets

JNO. WILLIAMS, INC., Bronze Foundry, 544 West 27th Street, New York. Write for illustrated booklet. Free.

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Mayor Gaynor
on
New York's Subways

Mayor Gaynor has written for The Outlook an article in which he considers the question: Who Shall Build New York Subways? He discusses the alternatives of extension and enlargements of the existing system by the Interborough Company, and the construction at the expense of the City of a new system to be operated by some other company.

Next Week's Issue of

The Outlook

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"Onyx" Hosiery

Trade GUARANTEED ONYX REGISTERED *Mark*

We started out with the intention of making the "*ONYX*" Hose so good that the consumers would be impressed with the *QUALITY*, and instinctively associate in their minds the "*ONYX*" Brand as *The most satisfactory Hosiery they ever wore.* It takes time to create this impression, but *you know* when *you arrive*—The public tells you—

The public has been telling us for some time that they believe in and want "*ONYX*" Hosiery. The numbers described below have done much to create this good opinion—Ask your dealer, or write us for the "*ONYX*" Brand.

FOR WOMEN

E 960—Women's "ONYX" Black and Tan "DUB-L TOP" Cobweb Lisle—resists the ravages of the Garter Clasp, **50c.** per pair

409 K—Women's "ONYX" "DUB-L TOP" Black, White and Tan Silklisle—double sole, spliced heel. Feels and looks like Silk, wears better, **50c.** per pair

E 710—Women's "ONYX" Black and Tan "DUB-L TOP" and "WYDE TOP" Gauze lisle double sole, spliced heel—very wide on top without extra width all over, **50c.** per pair

310/13—Women's "ONYX" Black, Medium Weight—Six-Thread Heel and Toe, Four-Thread all over. A hose that is unequaled for wear and elasticity, **50c.** per pair

E 970—Women's "ONYX" Black and Tan "DUB-L TOP" Silklisle double sole, spliced heel—an excellent quality, **75c.** per pair

OUT-SIZE HOSE

170 S—Women's "ONYX" Gauze Lisle "DUB-L TOP" Black, White, Pink, Tan, Cardinal, Sky, Navy, Violet; double sole, spliced heel, **50c.** per pair

SILK HOSE FOR WOMEN

498. A Pure Thread Silk in Black and All Colors, of extra length with a "WYDE TOP" and "SILKLISLE GARTER TOP" and SOLE.
This "ONYX" Silk number is Twenty-nine inches long, is Extra Wide and Elastic at Top, while the "GARTER TOP" and SOLE of SILKLISLE gives extra strength at the points of wear, preventing Garters from cutting, and toes from going through.

106. Women's Pure Thread Silk—**the extraordinary value—best made in America**—every possible shade or color—Black, White, Tan, Gold, Copenhagen Blue, Wistaria, Amethyst, Taupe, Bronze, American Beauty, Pongee, all colors to match shoe or gown. Every pair guaranteed, **$2.25** per pair

SILK HOSE FOR MEN

620. Pure Thread Silk, Black and All Colors, medium weight, with "Onyx" Lisle Lined Sole—insuring satisfactory service. **$1.50** per pair

FOR MEN

E 310—Men's "ONYX" Black and all Colors—Medium Weight—Six-Thread Heel and Toe, Four-Thread all over. Known by most men as **"The Best Hose I ever wore."** **50c.** per pair

E 325—Men's "ONYX" Black and all Colors Silklisle, gauze weight, double sole, spliced heel. **"The satisfactory hose."** **50c.** per pair

If your dealer cannot supply you, we will direct you to nearest dealer, or send, postpaid, any number desired. Write to Dept. M

Wholesale Distributors **Lord & Taylor** *New York*

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